The Role of Formal Education in the promotion of European Unity, with special reference to the U.K., Netherlands, West Germany and France.

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PART ONE: Background to the problem of achieving European unity.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION: STRUCTURE AND RATIONALE.

It is essential at the outset, before considering the means by which Europe can be united, to decide whether European unity is desirable and, if so, the form such unity should take.

Unity is desirable, one might even argue imperative, because Europe cannot hope to remain as it is. Throughout history, not only in Europe but all over the world - as man's technology has improved, so too his civilisation has progressed bringing about a growth of population which has presented him with further challenges. With each advancing stage of civilisation, there has also been a corresponding increase in the potential size of units of government. Extended families have amalgamated to form small tribes and small tribes form large ones; large tribes have in turn been amalgamated to form small nations or city states which have eventually given way to large. Now, finally, the nation states, despite their having acquired vast overseas dependencies in some cases, are in turn obliged to cede some sovereignty to great continental free-trade areas which seem to represent the nuclei of future vast confederations similar to the United States of America. In the case of the U.S.A. it achieved its constitutional stability because, although its pioneer stock was European in origin and had a long political and economic tradition behind it, when transplanted into a sparsely-populated continent it was able to break away from that tradition to create a new order, even while borrowing from that tradition for inspiration. Present-day Europeans are obliged to undertake the regeneration of Europe while living in the densely-populated continent, making their changes in open defiance of the traditions all around them, and of those who would wish to retain the status quo.

Nethertheless, Europe is obliged to take this next step in her political evolution, since failure on her part to do so could mean that the individual European states of today would soon be dwarfed by the emergence of other great super-powers, similar to those already in existence. It is possible that in due course China, Australasia and Latin America could emerge as similar world powers, and that even Africa, where nationalism is new, may possibly follow in their train.

If we believe in our culture and civilisation, and feel that Europe has a contribution of value, in terms of democratic government, social equality and justice, to make in the world, just as previously she pioneered modern industrial technology, then Europeans have to grasp the nettle of unification now, and join up our weak nations into a federation. Failure can only mean decline, and ultimate obscurity, with the region finally being assimilated by some more vigorous continental-scale power which has faced up to the challenge we have shrunk from. European civilisation will be eclipsed.

Europe could unite under a single, highly centralised regime, but experience of the Roman and Carolingian Empires, and more recently that of the Third German Reich, suggests forcibly that the cultural diversities that occur in Europe, and the individualism and love of liberty which characterises Europeans would make any such oppressive totalitarian government very unpopular and short-lived. A practical solution seems to be the establishment of democratic federal government, set up with the approbation of all, which can provide a central control sufficiently strong to co-ordinate the common efforts of Europeans for economic prosperity and political security throughout its domains, yet tolerant of regional differences. Such a government ought to be willing to preserve the rights of state governments

seeking to give expression to the needs and aspirations of all the various European peoples which it represents, and give them its full support.

As part of the essential background of this study it has been necessary to ascertain what cultural traditions Europeans hold in common and which can offer them a common basis for their thinking and co-operation. It has been just as relevant to identify the obstacles to unity which have to be overcome. They include differences in geographical environment, historical development, language, race, social customs, religion and philosophical tradition, all of which a successful federal government would not attempt to disregard or curb, but leave scope for legitimate expression and satisfaction of. For a government constituted in this way, the differences could become a source of enrichment rather than a stumbling block to effective unity.

It has also been necessary to identify the common influences which have helped shape the national education systems and upon which any policy towards harmonisation of European education would need to be based. Similarly there have been post-war political, economic and social trends which all these education systems have been influenced by, and which could possibly be harnessed in order to bring about harmonisation and closer co-ordination of the systems. At the same time it has been important to identify the geographical, historical and philosophical influences which have had the effect of making the various systems diverge from one another, because such insight is essential if these influences are, in future, to be rendered ineffectual.

It is also essential to assess the present state of the movement towards European unity, to decide the progress which has been made towards economic integration, what remains to be achieved, how far the

European Economic Community represents a potential nucleus for future federal government in Europe, and how far it falls short of what is required. Formal education can make two valuable contributions to the cause - by preparing Europe's future leaders, administrators, technologists and scientists, the people who will actually lead Europe on the road to unity; but, probably far more important - by helping to motivate not only these leaders and specialists, but also the ordinary European citizens who have to learn to think as Europeans, work for Europe's development, and adapt themselves continuously to the fast-changing environment which a Europe in the process of integration will entail.

Having defined the very great difficulties which confront Europe's educationalists in working towards the unification of such a highly-diverse continent in the introductory Part One of the thesis, it then becomes necessary to consider the role required of formal education if this is to be achieved. First, however, it is important to define the functions of formal education which make it capable of performing the role.

Traditionally the functions of formal education have been two-fold;

- preparing the future citizens of a given society for their future role, by transmitting to them its ethical values, customs, social skills, so that they can in future take part in its political life, public affairs, find personal fulfilment in their public and private lives, and help uphold the social values of that society.
- teaching the future citizens those technical skills which will enable them to make a living, and make a useful contribution to the economic prosperity of that society.

In the past technological, political, economic and social changes in society have been comparatively slow to occur, and it has therefore

been seen as a responsibility of that society, or else of government rather than of education, to help people cope with such limited changes as did occur. Now, however, confronted with such accelerated rates of change that people have to be helped to adapt continuously if they are to function effectively as citizens, workers or people, formal education is being called upon to perform quite different functions. These include the following;-

- identifying the changing needs of society, translating these into appropriate new ethical values, modes of social behaviour and social skills, and transmitting these to the future citizens, as well as established citizens of that society, so as to enable them to adapt as well as cope with the changes as they occur.
- researching new technological developments, and keeping abreast with those taking place elsewhere, while transmitting them to citizens, in order to enable them to earn their livings and make a useful contribution to society, either through the initiation of further technological developments, or at least through being able to cope with such developments as they occur.

In order to achieve such new and demanding objectives education itself is being required to change its own organisation, structure and practice, to render it more innovatory and dynamic, whereas before it was conservative and static in its approach.

Because progress towards the economic and political integration of Europe must inevitably accelerate the changes already taking place, the capacity of education to innovate and transmit the innovations promptly and effectively will inevitably be stretched to capacity, as it will be called upon to guide and re-educate many of Europe's people, as well as helping them to re-structure Europe as seems most congenial to them, and to handle the consequences such re-structuring is likely

to have upon their daily lives. Because the lives of modern people, and the changes about to take place in Europe, are complex, the initiating and reforming roles of education will also inevitably be complex. It will never be enough simply to teach Europeans about the kind of Europe it should be. Europeans will require a whole new range of ethical values, rooted in their traditions, yet designed to leave them free to accept new changes of circumstances, new modes of social behaviour conducive to the integration and development of the new political and economic structure, and new social skills appropriate to the kind of united Europe they themselves require. They must also be taught to look into themselves, and be articulate about their needs and aspirations, and willing to participate in finding ways and means by which these can be achieved and fulfilled, instead of simply waiting for them to be met. Finally, Europeans have to be educated to undertake research into new and existing technologies, or where they are not sufficiently talented for this, in learning either to employ them or live with them. Some technologies will be particularly conducive to European integration, and it is these - the ones concerned with instant communication, fast cheap travel, the generation and long-distance transmission of energy, effective administration and management of large-scale industries - which need to be developed to help in coping with the problems of Europe in process of integration.

That is why, in Part Two of this thesis, the various basic approaches which collectively may be regarded as making up the role of education in the promotion of European unity have to be identified and examined in depth.

If Europe is to be integrated, Europeans have to learn to interact more frequently and more effectively. Education will not only be concerned with training the scientists and technologists whose work will

help make such interaction cheaper, easier and more practical; anyone who is familiar with science fiction will realise that the whole mass of Europeans has to learn to avail itself of the technological aids to interaction, and this will probably prove one of the most exacting of the tasks confronting formal education - finding ways of creating Europe in the hearts and minds of its people, so that they will be willing to make it work.

First, Europeans have to learn the value of being Europeans, and to do this Europeans studies has an important function to perform - not only that of imparting information about Europe, but of helping students to acquire a European identity, and a will to contribute to it. However keen teachers may be to transmit their own enthusiasm to their pupils, they cannot do so effectively without the backing of agencies concerned with researching and disseminating up-to-date and accurate information about Europe and its progress towards integration, and the work of those who revise or compile the essential textbooks, films, etc., which are used in the schools. Text-book revision and the documentation and dissemination of information help provide the "bricks and mortar" with which the dedicated teachers can build Europe in the minds and hearts of its young citizens.

Formal education, having thus motivated people, then has to help them acquire the appropriate social behaviour and skills for interaction with their fellow Europeans. Given opportunities for cheap, easy rapid travel - a task in the province more of politicians and technologists than of teachers - it is then the task of formal education to help people acquire such essential social skills as possession of the ability to speak other European languages, and to cope with living in unfamiliar regions, not just briefly, in transit or in hotels, but for substantial periods while working, and participating in the local

community at public and personal levels. For those who learn to live in unfamiliar regions, familiarity with every part of the culture will be at least as important as mastery of the language of that region. Academic mobility can offer the starting point here, because once students, researchers and teachers at all levels of formal education are familiar with the skills required for living and working elsewhere, then many one-time students and researchers who acquired the skills as part of their education will subsequently permeate the whole labour force and so help contribute to general mobility of labour in European society.

In recent years it has also been increasingly recognised that it is an essential part of formal education not merely to impart knowledge and skills, but also to create an educational environment in which pupils can think through, and assimilate, new beliefs and ethical values, and test and consolidate their newly-acquired technological skills by using them in a valid social situation. In no area of learning is this more essential than in the context of learning about Europe. So far, experiments in this direction have been through international schools - or, more specifically in the context of Europe - through the European Schools and two post-graduate institutions, the College of Europe in Bruges and the University Institute in Florence. All these institutions, however, are highly selective and academic, and as such do not reach the majority of European young people. It will be a major concern of this study to find out how best the practical experience of working, living and learning in a European environment can be made available to all young Europeans and to adults as part of their educational experience.

Finally, in face of technological, political, economic and social changes, education is having to become more innovative and dynamic.

If it is to help Europeans at all effectively, it has to be concerned with much more than simply preparing young Europeans once for all of adult life. To enable adults to cope with the changes which have occurred after they have completed their compulsory schooling, the scope of formal education has to be extended so that people can return periodically to their education, in order to augment, revise, up-date or reorient what they have already learned as and when they find it necessary. Only in this way can formal education help Europeans to enjoy happy, useful and productive lives throughout their life-span, by up-dating their knowledge, skills and ideas as these are threatened with obsolescence. Only in this way, too, can adults be reached who would otherwise find it difficult to adapt to political and socio-economic changes going on in Europe as part of its integration unless education was still open to them.

Having attempted, for each of the approaches identified as making up the role of formal education, to assess the soundness of the assumption upon which it is based, what has been achieved using that approach; what, too, can be done in future to improve the effectiveness of that approach, it remains to consider what has been learned from the enquiry in Part Three of the thesis. In these conclusions, it has been found imperative to seek reasons why, collectively, all the approaches to the role of formal education seem to have had so little impact upon the real situation. It remains only to suggest the main obstacles confronting formal education in its task, and consider what can be done to remedy the situation in future.

CHAPTER II: THE EVOLUTION OF THE IDEA OF EUROPEAN UNITY UP TO THE TREATIES OF ROME.

Over the past three thousand years possibly the most all-pervading influences in European thought have been those derived from the Graeco-Roman and Judaeo-Christian traditions. Both explicitly declared Universaliam as an ideal, but so far this ideal has found limited expression on the occasions when, twice, Europe has undergone partial and temporary unification, only to fall into disarray again.

The last great Athenian philosophic school, that of the Stoics, was founded by Zeno of Citium at the end of the fourth century before Christ. From the start Stoicism belonged to the Greek World rather than to Athens. Its fundamental teaching concerned the oneness and perfection of nature, governed by a system of natural law, a system which was just, right, unchangeable, binding upon all mankind, and wholly amenable to reason. All men are citizens of the World City, to which they owe a loyalty and duty. Within this World City the social distinctions appropriate to particular localities have no relevance; Greek and Barbarian, high-born and common, slave and free, rich and poor are all equal in the sight of God, and the only distinguishing merit lies in the use of reason.

The work of Panaetius of Rhodes, Head of the Stoic School at the end of the second century, was to restate it in such a way that it appealed to educated Romans, who saw in it a philosophy conducive to individual courage, self-sufficiency and integrity, allied to concern for the public good.(1) Through such men imbued with Stoic values, Roman Law, whose time-honoured formulations were in need of revision

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1. George H. Sabine, "A History of Political Theory" (1951) p. 138

to take account of Rome's emergence as an important commercial centre, was supplemented by the growth of a kind of International Law, designed to regulate business dealings with foreign residents in the interests of honesty and fair-play. This new 'ius gentium', based upon a new spirit of enlightenment to which the Romans gave the name 'humanitas', also played a part in the liberalisation of the main canon of Roman Law.(1) Common respect for Roman Law was later to be an important unifying force amongst the diverse races which were to make up the Roman Empire, and it was probably a stronger bond in Western Europe before 1600 than any system of philosophy. It is true also that Roman Law forms the basis of the legal systems operating in several Western European countries today.

Eventually Stoic philosophy gained acceptance throughout the Graeco-Roman World, and in due course many of its ideals - the brotherhood of man, and his world citizenship under the regulation of Divine Reason - were adopted by early Christian apologists. As a result, Stoic influences have been discernible in later European thought, and although down the ages they have failed to inspire the unification of Europe, still

> "these conceptions of what human relations ought to be could never thereafter be altogether omitted from the political ideas of the European peoples".(2)

Although Judaism originated outside Europe, it has, as a result of its basic contribution to the beliefs and traditions of Christianity, also exercised a profound influence upon subsequent European thought. It is outside the scope of the present work to trace the development of the Hebrew concept of God from that of a petty tribal diety, whose powers did not extend beyond the place in which he resided, to that of

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1. George H. Sabine, "A History of Political Theory" (1951), p. 142.

2. George H. Sabine, Ibid., p. 143.

The God of all Mankind, but it is relevant to consider the conclusion arrived at by leading theologians, that

> "...in Deutero-Isaiah the conception of God reaches its highest and final development in Hebrew religion. He conceives of Yahweh as the God of the universe, and therefore the God of all peoples: with him the truth of the unity of God is reiterated, and becomes explicit as never before. He teaches too, that God is from everlasting to everlasting. The religion of the Jews was to become a world religion".(1)

As to whether this concept of universalism could possibly have had any political connotations, it should be borne in mind that the Jews of Old Testament times believed implicitly in theocratic government.

Thus, although a monarchy was instituted in Israel by the prophet Samuel in about 1,015 B.C., he regarded it as a concession to his peoples' weakness, and intended that the Kings of Israel should be subordinate to the ordinances and will of God as interpreted by the prophets. This meant that Old Testament Jews really were able to envisage the people of the whole world not merely worshipping their God, but subject to his direct rule as revealed by his chosen earthly representatives. The concept of theocratic government, which must seem wholly unrealistic to those who lack the necessary spiritual convictions, has indeed given rise to several political experiments in the course of European history. Not only monastic government, but that of the historical republics established by Calvin in Geneva and Zwingli in Zurich, as well as such European "transplants" as those of the Quaker Community under William Penn in Pennsylvania and the Mormans in Utah, have demonstrated that Theocracy can work, given the right conditions.

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1. W.O.E. Oesterley and Theodore H. Robinson, Hebrew Religion: Its Origin and Development, (1937), p. 310.

Through Jesus Christ, who, in his own words, "came ... to fulfil ... the law .. (and) .. the prophets"(1), the Christian faith inherited the older Judaistic tradition intact - including the universalist ideal. Freed from the restraining pressure of Jewish exclusivism, it once more became a central tenet of the early Christian church, despite the fact that the first Christians had been born Jews. This resurgence of universalism came about in an interesting way. One of the last injunctions of the Risen Christ to his remaining disciples had been -

> "... All authority hath been given unto me in Heaven and on Earth. Go ye therefore, and make disciples of all the nations - baptising them into the name of the Father, and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost".(2)

Despite this clear injunction, the first Jewish Christians began by requiring their converts to undergo circumcision and become Jews, before they could be baptised into Christianity. Only later did St. Peter, as a result of a vision involving creatures regarded by Jews as ceremonially unclean, come to realise that the Christian faith was open to all men; in his own words, perceiving -

> "... that God is no respecter of persons; but in every nation he that feareth him, and worketh righteousness, is acceptable to him".(3)

So it was that from about that time another convert to Christianity, one from the strictest of Jewish sects, Paul of Tarsus, set about preaching freely to Jew and Gentile alike. It was largely due to his missionary zeal that the Christian faith was soon spread throughout the Roman Empire. From that time onwards, the Christian faith - even more than the Stoic philosophy - has been influencing European thinking down to the present time.

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1. St Matthew, Chapter 5, v.17.

2. St. Matthew, Chapter 28, v.19.

3. Acts of the Apostles, Chapter 10, vv. 34(b),35.

Both the Graeco-Roman and Judaeo-Christian traditions, then, put forward an ideal of universalism, and only later was an interest expressed in European unity. The question arises, accordingly, as to whether European unity can be looked upon as a transitional stage to the greater world unity, or whether they are different, or even opposing ideals.

It is valid to argue, from the historical point of view, that the philosophers of the Graeco-Roman, and medieval Christian eras conceived their world as centred upon the Mediterranean Sea - the "Sea in the middle of the Earth" - and that to them, therefore Europe was practically synonomous with human civilisation. When, therefore, they put forward the idea of natural or divine law, they visualised it as being applied to a predominantly European World.

What, however, of contemporary Europe? it may be that some modern Europeans see progress towards European unity as creating an exclusive, Eurocentric society, and may adhere to a kind of wider nationalism. It must be admitted that Europe could become a third superpower, insensitive to humanity as a whole, and as guilty of exploitation as the others have been. If this were to be the net result, European unity could indeed set back the cause of internationalism by many generations!

There are, however, a number of evidences suggesting that this need not be so. First, there is the evidence of history to show that human society, in Europe and elsewhere, has grown from extended family groups, been welded into tribes, from tribes into nations, and so on, as human social needs have made it necessary and human technology has made it possible. It seems probable that the process will continue all over the world, until, whether it be by mutual consent between nations(1) or through the domination of one state by another(2) the

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1. The kind of process which gave rise to the EEC.

2. As anticipated by Bertrand Russell in "New hopes for a changing world" (1951), p.77

world will eventually come under some form of universal authority.

Secondly, there is some evidence to suggest that both the EEC and the Council of Europe see their memberships as part, not only of Europe, but of the world at large, and that both are striving to avoid the emergence of Eurocentricity in Europeans. The Brandt Report(1), the world-wide economic aid programmes extended to help the Caribbean, African and Pacific countries under Lomé II and its predecessors(2), and the publication, by the Council of Europe, of a report on World problems(3) have been European initiatives which bear witness to the willingness of Europeans to look beyond the confines of their continent. Similarly, the European Information and Documentation Centres like CEVNO and SERC all bear witness, in their projects, to the concern of European teachers to avoid transmitting Eurocentric attitudes to their pupils.

Thirdly, the arguments and objectives put forward by pro-Europeans in an effort to break down sectarianism, regionalism and nationalism are quite as supportive of the wider objective of World federalism. Just as it would be almost impossible for urban planners, once they have established a new city like Milton Keynes, to cap its future growth once it had reached a certain point of economic "take off", so it seems inconceivable, given the appropriate socio-economic, technological and political conditions which brought European unity into being, for that united Europe, once established, not to continue to assimilate or seek to assimilate, other nations on its non-European

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1. The Brandt Report "North-South: A Programme for Survival", Feb: 1980.
2. Lomé I (1975) and Lomé II (1980) Agreements between the EEC and C.A.P. Countries.
3. Council of Europe Parliamentary Assembly:
   "Global Prospects, Human needs and the Earths' Resources".
   Committee on Economic Affairs and Development:
   Reporter - M. Grimsson, Strasbourg 1981.

periphery, or seek to develop wider spheres of influence beyond Europe once they have reached the geographical limits of the continent. In point of fact, these geographical limits are already very arbitrary - for example, both Russia and Turkey extend beyond Europe into Asia. European civilisation is bounded on its south side not by the Mediterranean but by the Sahara Desert, North America is just one of a number of regions peopled mainly by Europeans, and Europe also has strong commercial and cultural links with many other parts of the world. Any of these 'bridgeheads' could provide the basis for future integration, just as Hawaii and Puerto Rico are closely bonded to the U.S.A. while Canada and parts of Central and South America could also be drawn into closer association.

Supporting the notion that European unity is transitional to World unity, MacKay(1) has asserted that while the world is not yet ready for world government, the time is ripe for European unity. There are similar portents in other parts of the world too. According to J.P. Coles(2) about nine similar continental trading blocks other than our own EEC are emerging in other parts of the world; and are likely in time to assimilate most of the countries that exist today.
It seems probable that, in the more distant future the world will be absorbed into a single united federation of states - dedicated to the well-being of all mankind, and to making peaceful prosperous co-existence possible in this small, limited planet. How this union is achieved - whether by peaceful means or by conquest, is irrelevant.

While it must be conceded that the unification of Europe could be antagonistic to world integration it seems likely that it will provide a transitional stage in the progress towards it.

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1. R.W.G. MacKay, "Towards a United States of Europe" Hutchinson (1961) pp.84-89

2. J.P. Coles, "Geography of World Affairs" Penquin (Third Edition, 1964) p.286.

The first power in history to achieve effective political control over much of Western Europe was Rome, and their empire was to last from about 31 B.C. until about the end of the fourth century A.D. For most of this long period the imperial authorities viewed Christianity as a dangerous and seditious cult, and yet all the while it was gaining wide support despite many efforts to suppress it. Finally, after A.D. 313, when the Emperor Constantine himself became a convert, Christianity became the official religion of the Empire.

Under the Empire, as already indicated, Stoicism contributed to the shaping of Roman character, and to the development of Roman Law. It was this Roman Law backed by efficient civil administration, and when this failed, effective military force, which made it possible for the Empire to endure for more than four hundred years. Beneath its protective canopy, Europeans from places as far apart as the Scottish Lowlands in the north to Sicily in the south, from Spain in the far west to Greece in the east, could enjoy the social benefits of a common culture and the economic advantages of commercial mobility, under the "Pax Romana".

It is little wonder that throughout the intervening centuries men have looked back on this period as Europe's "Golden Age"; yet the fact remains that this empire was not the kind from which we of today can seek inspiration for the future. It was an empire based upon naked military might and not upon the consent of its citizens, although many did, in fact, come to believe in it.

Much the same might also be said of the Carolingian Empire which, however, lasted only briefly from A.D.800, when Charles the Great was crowned Emperor, until twenty-six years after his death in A.D.814. Enlightened as he certainly was regarding his duties as a Christian King, and towards scholarship and education in general in a dark age, the brutal methods by which he sought to maintain peace and establish

the Christian faith amongst his subjects, exemplified by his treatment of the Saxons, reveal that his was also an empire based upon coercion. Despite this, men looked back with nostalgia in later years and remembered the enlightenment they had shared and not the force which had made it possible. Charles' vision for European unity is perhaps of greater significance to present-day Europeans than his cultural revival or his limited imperial achievement for according to F.M. Almedingen he

> "... dreamt not of an ideally administered state but of a world created after the pattern of God's own city. Catholic faith in all its fulness was to be the corner-stone not of Frankland only but of the whole of Europe ..."(1)

Consideration of the two great political experiments of Rome and Charlemagne again raises questions to which answers are necessary: first, why did these two great essays in European unity fail to survive? Also - arising-out of that question - since they failed, why should the modern movement for the unification of Europe be any more successful in creating and perpetuating that unity, since the forces of separatism and nationalism now seem to be so much more powerful than ever before?

The Roman and Carolingian Empires both had strong ideological bases. That of Rome arose from the universalism of the Stoics, which had found expression in the Ius Gentium, and tangible demonstration in the Pax Romana. The Carolingian Empire aspired to represent all that was great, not only in the Roman Empire, but in medieval Christianity, since Charlemagne claimed the authority both of Roman Emperor and champion of all Christendom, embodying the universalist ideal allied to the authority of God and his Church. But the key to their failure lay not in their ideals, but in their practice, for both, as already noted, were empires based upon repression, and military force in the last resort.

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1. E.M. Almedingen, Charlemagne - a study (1968), p.63.

In so far as people over a vast area believed in, and profited from Pax Romana it was able to endure for half a millennium - and even after its dissolution retained a powerful influence over the minds of men like Charlemagne for many centuries. But the Roman Empire was, in the last analysis, held together by naked military force and the threat of retribution - with punitive crucifixions a common occurance in areas where insurrection was rife. When the Empire could no longer defend its vast frontiers - it succumbed to the barbaric incursions of the Goths. We have also quoted Almedingen p.22 above, who in his book goes on to describe the horrifying brutality with which Charlemagne, that great Christian king, imposed his christian rule upon his Saxon subjects. His Empire survived him by only a single generation.

In contrast, the new United States of Europe, to which the contemporary European movement aspires, is likely to be evolved, slowly, by constitutional means, supported by careful educational preparation. It will ultimately be based, and sustained, by the mutual will of the European peoples themselves, not by the coercive force of government.

Provided events are not overtaken prematurely by some great world catastrophe - such as nuclear war, or ecological breakdown occasioned by over-population, pollution or disease, the European Community and other emerging blocs can hopefully reach a suffiently advanced state of constitutional development in which they can cope with such external threats as they occur. Such threats may even serve a worthwhile purpose if they bring home to Europeans, and to mankind generally, the need to abandon their separatist, sectarian or nationalist pretensions, and embark upon common and wholehearted policies for economic and political integration, upon which their future security will depend.

Advantages to a Europe united by the mutual will of its citizens

are likely to include the fact that, whatever security threats may occur from external powers; because its constitution will from the start have developed the necessary consultative machinery to help give expression to the aspirations of its citizens, it will be more responsive to internal pressures for change, and less prone to the threat of disintegrative powers from within.

In the seven hundred years which elapsed between the disintegration of the Carolingian Empire and the mid-sixteenth century, fundamental and closely related changes occurred in the political, economic and social structure of Europe which culminated in the emergence of the early modern age. Few of the changes contributed directly to any process of unification in Europe, indeed one could argue the reverse in the short term, but indirectly the decline of medieval institutions, practices and beliefs provided men with greater individual freedom, and offered wider scope for future European development.

Between about 1350 and 1600 a revitalised enquiry into all branches of human knowledge and thought occurred to which is given the name of the Renaissance. The movement found expression in a rekindling of interest in Classical learning of all kinds, and was greatly facilitated by the invention of printing which gave the educated public cheap books. This in turn stimulated scholars - many of them Catholic clergy - to revive Humanism, drawing initially from the work of the Stoics. Their teachings included a universalist view of mankind, concern for "free liberty of the mind" provided this was not a threat to public order, and concern for the reform of education to train pupils in wisdom, tolerance and virtue. Other scholars were attracted to the natural sciences, which had been neglected since Classical times. Such a new critical and enquiring outlook also inspired calls for the reform

of Church government and practice. In addition to these flowerings of philosophical and scientific enquiry, the Renaissance stimulated new heights of achievement in literature, poetry, architecture, painting and all the Arts.

During the same period the Catholic Church was offending the sensibilities of many of the more devout clergy and laity by evidences of the lax morals, corruption and greed which had permeated her fabric. The Church's attitude towards dissenting opinions, scientific conjectures and discoveries, even to proposals for reform known to be justified, was found to be not merely dogmatic and intolerant, but ruthless. Any kind of challenge to her absolute authority in all matters of knowledge or belief might incur severe censure, excommunication, even death for its author. This placed many original scholars in an intolerable position, men loyal and devoted to the Church. By censuring the practices of usury and sale for profit so rigorously, the Church imposed a severe restraint upon the expansion of manufacture and commerce, which served to alienate craftsmen and merchants. Finally, claims that papal authority stood supreme over that of the temporal rulers in the new Nation States was seen by some as challenging their authority. Protestant churches grew up and received the support of various of the European rulers, mainly in the years between 1500 and 1555. With ill feeling towards the Catholic Church running high, the Protestant Ruler of England used it as a pretext to confiscate church property.

Declining authority on the part of the Church, the weakened influences of medieval manor and guild in most parts of Western Europe, both facilitated the growth of urban craft industry but also the expansion of domestic and overseas trade. In turn a competitive search on the part of rival European powers for new commercial markets

encouraged exploration and the establishment of overseas colonies from about 1450 onwards. All these developments helped in the achievement of new levels of economic prosperity in Europe. The widening horizons which exploration made possible also raised new questions, encouraged new philosophical thought, helped in the extension of man's knowledge about the world, and invited interest in men of other races, and inevitably, comparison of the institutions found in one country with those of another. Eventually the insights thus acquired were to give rise to greater tolerance and understanding, prerequisites of internationalism, but progress towards such enlightenment was slow, and affected only a minority of progressive thinkers.

Finally, throughout much of the late medieval period the royal dynasties of France, England, Spain and Portugal had all been endeavouring to consolidate their personal powers and at the same time build up the economic and political strength of their kingdoms. To achieve this, they had allied themselves with the rising urban bourgeois classes who were generating new wealth against the older landed interests, who had in the past curtailed the power of the monarchs. Such ambitious monarchs encouraged new economic growth through industry, trade, and colonisation, and so modern nation states were created. Against the background of these changes, all more or less contemporary with one another, philosophers were advancing new proposals and ideas relevant to the ideal of a united Europe.

Amongst the Catholic philosophers of the Renaissance period was Nicholas of Cusa, or Cues, the German town in which he was born in 1400. He studied at Heidelberg and subsequently at Padua, and rose to the rank of Cardinal. As Papal Legate he was sent on a mission to Constantinople, where he tried to promote the reconciliation and union of the Western and Eastern Churches.

He was well in advance of his contemporaries in his scientific thinking, both in his use of mathematics as a means of investigating the nature of the world, and in his conclusion that the earth rotated round the sun. He advocated religious tolerance as a necessary prerequisite of internationalism. His ideas stimulated widespread scientific interest, so that Italy and Germany, where his influence had been greatest, were amongst the first European countries to develop learned scientific societies. Unfortunately, however, the Church's rejection of many early scientific discoveries led to science developing into a secular international movement. Nicholas of Cusa died in 1464.

Like Nicholas of Cusa, Sir Thomas More was a devout Catholic, but he was an Englishman, member of the Laity, and his interests leaned more towards social and political philosophy than towards scientific conjecture. He was born in London during 1478, the son of a judge. He too followed the legal profession, when, following study at Oxford University, he completed his terms at New Inn and Lincoln Court, and became an 'Utter Barrister' - full member of that profession - in 1501. In 1516 he published his famous political satire "Utopia". Apart from More's humanist outlook, in which the Stoic influence is discernible, he counted amongst his friends the Dutch Humanist philosopher, Erasmus. It is readily apparent on studying "Utopia" that More was pointing back to the medieval ideal of a "common corps of Christendom", and deplored the declining moral values of his own day which he saw as stemming from the weakening of that unity. In "Utopia" More contrasted the poverty, social inequality, intolerance of different beliefs and rivalry or distrust towards foreigners, with the reasonable attitudes displayed by the Utopians - who shared their possessions and scorned undeserved status or display, so that there was no poor and oppressed

class; who showed kindly tolerance towards all dissenting opinions - provided these did not constitute a threat to public order and decency; and showed willing hospitality to foreigners reaching their shores - provided they came in peace, especially welcoming those with new skills or ideas to offer. The virtues More extolled were those conducive to the establishment of the brotherhood of man - furthermore, it has been conjectured that the unknown island off the shore of a continent, Utopia, may have been inspired by More's interest in the discoveries then taking place in the New World.

More's high principles won him recognition under Henry VIII, so that in 1529 he was appointed Lord High Chancellor of England. Soon after, however, those same virtues led him into dispute with the king, over the latter's rift with Rome. After resigning from the Chancellorship in 1532, the situation deteriorated because Sir Thomas was not prepared to condone the putting away of Henry's wife, Catherine of Aragon, in flagrant disregard for the uncompromising moral ruling of the Catholic Church in this matter. When put on trial for treason against his one-time royal master, More, in the process of declaring his position as regards the royal policies - made an impassioned plea for the unity of European Christendom with Britain an integral part of it on historical grounds.

> "It was not the Norman Conquest that made England part of the continental civilisation, as modern historians so often assert. Thomas More, though he knew little or nothing of the details, was right when he argued at his trial that the conversion of England to Christianity had resulted in England taking her place forthwith in a European Unity.
> ...Britain had been part of the ancient Roman World, and, in spite of a century and a half of Teutonic heathendom, the earlier Christianity of Britain had been passed on to sanctuaries like Glastonbury and Iona.
> The mission of Augustine meant 'the return of Britain to Europe'.(1)

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1. Christopher Dawson, The Making of Europe, (1932), p.209.

> ... More was giving a true view of English history when he claimed that Englishmen, as Christians, had always been part of one great unity - and that to separate the English Church from the European fellowship, and make it subordinate to the English State, as Henry claimed to do, was a new thing, a departure from a tradition nearly a thousand years old". (1)

Doubtless More was only too well aware that by making this candid declaration he was making the outcome of his trial doubly certain, and when his execution came in 1535 he certainly faced it with serenity. The above quotations from Chambers are not intended to invalidate the qualification, previously expressed, that neither the Roman Empire, nor Medieval Christendom, may rightly be regarded as models for the kind of European unity we envisage today. What, however, they may serve to establish is that More believed in universalism, and looked towards the establishment of a kind of European unity - drawing inspiration both from British history, and from the Stoic and Christian roots of his Humanism.

His friend, Erasmus Desiderius (1469-1536), the Dutch Catholic theologian and philosopher, acquired in his lifetime a European reputation for his wisdom and scholarship. Although he was able to participate in an international circle opened to him in his capacity as a distinguished Catholic philosopher and author, he does not appear to have published anything specifically concerned with internationalism or with European unity. However, the universalist position of all Humanists was never more elequently expressed than in his reply declining an invitation from the Protestant Reformer, Zwingli, to become a citizen of the theocratic city of Zurich couched as follows:-

> "I wish to be a citizen of the world - to belong to all; or rather than being a cosmopolite I would rather be more - Man, not citizen".

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1. R.W. Chambers, Thomas More (1938), pp.390-391.

The discovery of the New World and its sebsequent colonisation, probably marked the point of effective divergence of universalism, which now included those who consciously took men in regions far outside Europe into their account, and those specifically concerned with European unity, although neither of these ideals need be exclusive of the other. Real universalists like Bartolomé de Las Casas and Francisco de Vitoria in the sixteenth century were concerned with establishing human rights and equality for the inhabitants of the New World, while nearly a century later Grotius was providing the basis of modern international law.

It was inevitable, given the events of the Reformation, that in time more radical Protestant thinkers would make their contribution to the cause of universalism; and also, that in due course, secular philosophers would emerge, lacking formal religious convictions, yet motivated as strongly by rational or Humanist ideals.

John Amos Comenius, or Komensky, was born in Moravia in 1592, and studied at Herborn and Heidelberg. Throughout his life he was a practising schoolmaster and a clergyman of the Protestant group known as Moravian Brethren. In addition, however, he found time to write textbooks, but also books on educational method, and, most relevant in this context, on philosophy. In his educational outlook he was almost certainly influenced by another educationalist, Wolfgang Ratke, a Holsteiner who lived from 1571-1635, and who had in 1612 proposed a method for quick language teaching to the Imperial Diet with the object of establishing a uniform speech, government and religion throughout the Empire. He also advocated that children should be allowed to learn by personal investigation, experiment and analysis - "the order and course of nature" - and not as he so often observed, by having learning imposed upon them by the teacher.

In a number of his books, Comenius expounded a comprehensive educational philosophy to which he gave the name "Pansophia" and defined education as a mighty instrument for universal brotherhood and Godliness. In "Pampaedia" he argued that "the instruments of education are given not only to all in one nation, but to everybody all over the world ... through the identity of human nature everywhere ... It is clear, therefore, that all men, without exception, should be educated for humanity". As he indicated in his book "Panothosia", it was his ardent wish that a world government should be established "to lead the propagation of justice and peace from nation to nation all over the world", and it was to education that he gave this divine mission.

In his essay "Via Lucis" - The Way of Light - he expressed his hopes for mankind, and suggested a scheme "for the betterment of all men rested on the concept of world peace without indifference, world order without stagnation, and a world-wide search for knowledge, experience and truth without rejection of the lessons of the past".

Comenius argued that if people could only devote their lives to study they would acquire wisdom and be led to God, since "the more clearly and fully nature is revealed (by study) the more clearly will the majesty of the Creator of Nature shine forth". For the purpose of extending knowledge of all branches of study to all mankind he advocated the establishment of "universal books, universal schools, a universal college, and a universal language".

The first universal book was to the "Panosophia" - which would set out in strict order "all things that are necessary for man in this life and in the future life to know, to believe, and to hope". The second universal book,"Panhistoria", would "gather together the history of nature, and show the continual struggle in nature and in

human affairs", although he thought that the "wickedness of past generations should be buried in the darkness of oblivion". The third universal book, "Pandogmatica", would provide an orderly record of the "quintessence of authors from age to age, land to land, a true record uncoloured by any bias which might obscure the original sense".

Universal schools would enable each individual to rise out of their "darkness, ignorance, and barbarism", and this would be achieved with the "delighted acquiescence" of pupils. Comenius further observed that parents need guidance on the early instruction and discipline of their children, that teachers require training in the art of teaching, and he advocated that rich men should contribute to the education of children belonging to the poor.

The Universal College and its professors were intended to act as architects and builders of the universal scheme, advancing its aims and ideals by seeing that they were carried out in practice. Each nation should appoint at least one honorary professor to it. The Head of the College should live in the most accessible place available, and Comenius recommended England for the site of the New College on the grounds of its navigational centrality. It is interesting to note that the English Government of the Commonwealth actually took an interest in Comenius' proposal, until problems associated with the Civil War intervened.(1) Comenius warned that the Universal College would be involved in the publication of many books, and that this and the exercise of their responsibility to ensure that every town and village had its own school would require a substantial revenue. It was his intention that the professors would also supervise the oversight of the schools, acting as a kind of inspectorate.

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1. William Boyd and Edmund J. King. "The History of Western Education" Adam and Charles Black (1975) p.245.

As for the provision of a Universal Language, Comenius believed that a simpler, more regular and richer language was required to replace Latin, and that it might even be necessary to invent just such a rational, analogical and harmonious language once pansophia had been established. Funds would also be required to cover the cost of producing textbooks and subsequent testing in schools. Once the pansophic scheme was in operation throughout Christendom, its use could be extended to the countries of the barbarian world. It is clear from this last observation, that Comenius was a European as well as a universalist, believing that the unification of Christendom was a practical transitional step towards the greater universalist ideal.

In our day, confronted by an overpopulated, heavily polluted, small planet, its resources threatened with exhaustion, Comenius' ideas seem eminently reasonable, even if a trifle naive. Yet to the people of his day his proposals appeared ludicrous. He died aged 78, in 1670, at Naarden in the Low Countries.

In contrast to Comenius, who might be described as an idealist and a theoretician, one who erred in his belief that education alone could change the world because he could not believe that the enlightened man could do anything but behave rationally, wisely and rightly, William Penn was at once a pratical man as well as an idealist.

William Penn, the famous Quaker was born in London, 1644, the son of an eminent English Admiral. Although he gained admission to Oxford University, he was expelled for expressing his dissenting views. Throughout his life he was to fight, sometimes facing imprisonment for his beliefs, to gain religious toleration for Dissenters - including his fellow Quakers. In 1682, having obtained a special grant from King Charles II to establish a British Colony in North America, he

founded Pennsylvania with its capital city of "Philadelphia" - City of Brotherly Love - where at least for a time he was successful in giving embodiment to his principles.

In the course of his lifetime he wrote a variety of books and pamphlets, amongst them "An Essay towards the Present and Future Peace of Europe" (1693). In this he advocated the establishment of an European Parliament.(1) He died in 1718. A fellow Quaker, John Bellars, is also significant for having written "Some Reasons for an European State" (1710). In this he proposed the "division of Europe into one hundred equal provinces federated into a single state".(2)

The Abbé de St Pierre was born in France in 1658. He is famous for his "Projet Pour Rendre la Paix Perpetuelle en Europe" written in 1713, which was a formative influence in the thinking of Rousseau and Kant. He died in 1718.

Humanism as a philosophic movement has its roots in Stoic and Christian philosophy, and has continued as a living philosophical school down to the present day, often in a secular garb: However, the dominant philosophical school of the late seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was that of the Enlightenment. Amongst the forerunners of the movement was Descartes (1596-1650) who taught that all problems were amenable to reason, and that the world is governed by natural mechanical laws. Thus in its direct appeal to reason the Enlightenment rejected religious dogma and claimed the authority of knowledge which was open to all men. It also secured the support of the philosophical scientific movement, a movement already secularised since falling foul of Catholic dogma towards the end of the pre-Reformation era.

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1. N. Hans, The Historical Evolution of Internationalism, in Year Book of Education (1964).

2. N. Hans, op. cit.

John Locke (1632-1704) was an English philosopher who refuted Descartes, arguing that knowledge is acquired through the senses, and that therefore the quality of man in society depends upon the quality of his education. He advocated education through personal discovery, and this conviction - as well as his beliefs in universal tolerance and democratic government - were to profoundly influence educational and political philosophy both in Europe and the United States of America. Voltaire (1694-1778), a French philosopher, was influenced not only by Locke but also by the philosophical scientific movement as represented by Bacon, Newton and others, and so helped win recognition for their ideas throughout Western Europe.

Charles Louis de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu, the famous French philosopher and jurist, was born in Bordeaux in 1689. In the course of collecting material for the writing of his famous "Esprit de Lois" - Spirit of the Laws, published in 1748, he painstakingly visited and recorded observations in Austria, Hungary, Venice, Rome, Switzerland, the Rhineland Region, Holland and England - where he stayed for nearly two years.

He believed that National Laws were based upon Natural Law, which however, he identified with common human instincts such as self-preservation, hunger and sex desire. In this he diverged from the usual definitions - regarding basic principles of justice and fair-play, such as respect for our creator, for the laws of the society we live in, or acceptance of the principle that a wrongdoer is deservedly paid-back in the same coin, simply as "rapports" or relationships. He reserved the term "law" for man-made laws designed to meet the needs and circumstances of a particular society. He did not acknowledge the existence of common principles lying behind the laws of quite unrelated peoples.

Montesquieu considered the relation to the various types of government of different codes of criminal and civil law - those governing marriage, property and inheritance; taxation commerce and exchange; population, various social institutions - such as relations between the two sexes, parents and children, master and servant, and finally in religious matters. He believed that in studying all these relationships the climate, one of the most potent factors influencing the character and capabilities of a people, must be taken account of. While he recognised that in the case of primitive people, close to nature, the natural environment is most directly responsible for their social customs, occupations and laws, he also was aware that civilised races are able to enjoy more self determination, because they have been able to modify their environment. He rightly inferred from this that "the kind of government, kind of institutions which are suitable for a North European people would be hopelessly out of place if (introduced) among negroes of Central Africa". It followed, Montesquieu reasoned, that if laws appropriate to a sophisticated people are not suitable for a primitive one, that different laws will be required in each case to achieve the same ends:-

> "If we want common ends - peace, stability, prosperity, happiness, what are the various ways - depending on the different conditions men find themselves - of realising them?".
> The constitution of a given country ... "should be in relation to the climate of that country ... to the quality of its soil, to its situation, to its extent, to the principal occupations of the natives, whether husbandry, huntsmen or shepherds. They should have relation to the degree of liberty which the constitution will bear; to the religion of the inhabitants, to their inclinations, riches, numbers, commerce, manners, customs. These relations ... together constitute what I call the 'spirit of Laws'. In all these different lights they aught to be considered. This is what I have undertaken to perform in the following work".(1)

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1. Montesquieu, Esprit de Lois, 1,3. (1748)

Montesquieu displayed great objectivity in his judgements. He also placed considerable value upon tolerance and the liberty men should enjoy in order that they should be happy. But occasionally Montesquieu also showed another aspect of his character, when confronted by intolerance, tyranny and dogmatism - anything, in short, which threatened liberty. His attitudes stemmed from his realisation that the concepts of "right" which some would seek to perpetuate as dogmas are in fact only so, just as far as they are appropriate to the environmental determinants - physical, cultural and economic - which appertain, and which vary from place to place, and from one historical period to another. From these attitudes and conclusions Montesquieu acquired an internationalist outlook, reminiscent of that of the Stoic philosophers, namely, that a society of nations ought to be established for mutual benefit, and unified under "Natural Law".

Benjamin Franklin, a talented and versatile American, was a product of the Enlightenment, as displayed in his practical scientific interests. In his political beliefs he seems to have been much influenced by English philosophers - for despite his American patriotism he displayed admiration for the British Constitution and for the potential contribution of the British Empire to the International Cause. At the same time his associations with France immediately prior to the Revolution would suggest that he shared, along with Montesquieu, Rousseau and other pre-Revolution Frenchmen, his love of liberty and toleration extended to all mankind.

Franklin was born at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1706, and when he was old enough he joined his brother, proprietor of a newspaper, as an apprentice printer. In 1729 he bought his own paper - "The Pennsylvania Gazette". In the course of his long lifetime he achieved a wide range of careers and interests - becoming Postmaster

General to the Colonies (1754), making pioneer experiments into electricity which enabled him to produce an effective lightning conductor, and distinguishing himself both as a diplomat and a government negotiator for the Americans.

He also distinguished himself as a writer and publisher in the international cause, and because, as a political philosopher and constitutional theorist, he contributed to the framing of the American Constitution.

Although his loyalities to his homeland involved him in negotiations against England, nevertheless he was at heart a great admirer of England where he had many personal friends, and whose constitution he regarded as of proven stability. He was also a staunch advocate of internationalism and saw the British Empire as providing a nucleus for a commonwealth of self-governing nations, as proposed in his book - "The Interest of Great Britain considered with Regard to her Colonies and the Acquisition of Canada and Guadaloupe" (1760). Soon after this, however, he was involved, in his capacity as diplomat, in protracted negotiations on behalf of his fellow colonists, and when these finally broke down, in the framing of the American Constitution leading up to Independence in 1776. Even then, it fell to Franklin to negotiate Britain's recognition of American cessation from the Empire, and as sovereign state (1783).

Subsequently he became the U.S. Minister in Paris, and while there he envisaged a republican federation made up of England, Ireland, France, Poland and the U.S.A., which he intended should develop as a nucleus for future World Government. In the promotion of this vision he published Gargas' "Project for International Peace" at Passay, Paris. He returned to the U.S.A. from France in 1785, but even in his last years was called upon to stand as President of Pennsylvania, a position

he held until close to his death in 1788. After this, Gargas was to write a further work - "Contrat Social Surnome Union Francmaçone" (1797) in which he proposed the establishment of an organisation similar in concept to the present-day United Nations Organisation.

Immanuel Kant was born in Konigsberg in 1724, son of a saddler. he studied at Konigsberg University and in adult life distinguished himself as a philosopher. He ragarded the Enlightenment as man's coming of age and thinking for himself. It was the duty of men to develop the capacity for rational thought so as to arrive at true knowledge and an understanding of nature, and the duty of government to promote natural good and human happiness. It was therefore also the duty of society to provide an education designed to inculcate the will to act rightly, to develop natural gifts in order to fulfil the pupil's true destiny, but also to teach him to seek good, acquiring knowledge and wisdom as a means to these ends. In his "Zum Ewigen Frieden" - Perpetual Peace (1795) he followed Rousseau's lead in regarding nature as the divine order which shapes humanity, and eventually leads him to a realisation of the essential unity of mankind. He advocated a World Federation of Free States (Volkerbund) to be set up subject to Universal Law (Volkerecht). To this end Kant advocated the adoption of republicanism in all countries.

His ideas had a profound effect on those of Fichte, Hegel and Schopenhauer, but also on those of Johann Bernhard Basedow (1723-1790). Basedow has been described as a "European of Christian tradition" and was dedicated to the training of Europeans. He acknowledged as his formative influences, in addition to Kant, the teachings of Rousseau and Comenius. As a practising schoolmaster, he established a boarding school called "Philanthropin", where he aimed to inculcate his ideals. Kant died in 1804.

Thus, throughout the long period from the late middle ages down

to the modern industrial age, the philosophers of both schools, Humanist and Enlightenment thinkers alike, contributed to a common European code of values. A thirst for the acquisition of knowledge was created; a conviction of the essential value and dignity of man - and consequently the need for democratic government and equal justice for all, established; and, for the achievement of these, a desire for effective education was also inculcated in the peoples of Europe. Throughout the same period the ancient Stoic ideal of Universalism had also been kept alive, so that not only original philosophical thinkers, but far-seeing Europeans were able to cherish a vision of European Unity. Such a man was the nineteenth century dramatist and novelist, Victor Hugo. While it is true that Hugo participated in French politics, it was through his literary contributions that he is remembered, and it is through them, too, that he expressed his beliefs. In one poem, "Plein Ciel", he expressed a faith that men would one day conquer the air, paralleled by a conviction that man would eventually achieve the synthesis of scientific knowledge with full moral perception. In another of his unpublished writings, Hugo, who lived from 1802 until 1885, expressed his vision of Europe in the form of a confident prediction:-

> "I represent a party which does not exist, Civilisation. This party will make the twentieth century. There will come from it first the United States of Europe, and then the United States of the World".

The arena of European philosophy in the early nineteenth century was occupied largely by three schools of thought whose founders were roughly contemporary with one another - Utilitarianism, Positivism and Socialism. All were influential, all had universalist implications, and indeed, none was wholly unrelated to the others. Two however, appealed only to the European intelligentia - so that they waned in

influence as new modes of thought gained ascendancy. The third, Socialism, had an impact upon all classes of European society, and for this reason has remained influential in European thought down to the present time.

Jeremy Bentham has been called the Founder of English Utilitarianism - a philosophy based upon the belief that an action is right if it tends to promote happiness and wrong if it tends towards pain. Bentham, born in Plymouth, 1748, studied at Oxford before taking up Law. He avoided practising his profession, however, preferring to suffer some privations before establishing a reputation as an author on Jurisprudence and Utilitarian Ethics. In support of his Utilitarian beliefs, he proposed a "Hedonic calculus" which he claimed would quantify the value of an action in terms of pleasure or pain. He was active in a whole range of other projects including prison reform, but he was also a keen internationalist, and advocated the establishment of world courts to settle international conflicts. He died in 1832. His ideas were very influential in widely different spheres. For example, Adam Smith, author of "Wealth of Nations" (1776) may well have been influenced by Bentham when he advocated international free trade on the grounds of what economists term "comparative advantage", a concept similar to "Utility". Smith, in his advocacy of the principle of Free Trade, was anticipating one of the main philosophical bases of the EEC, as established by the Treaties of Rome, and the other Free Trade blocks which have begun to emerge all over the world.

Claude Henri, Comte de Saint Simon, born in Paris of 1760, was an important pioneer socialist, a dedicated internationalist, and a major influence upon the thinking of his secretary and disciple, Auguste Comte, who later was to be the leading exponent of "Positivism". St. Simon advocated the positive reorganisation of society, under the spiritual

direction of men of science rather than that of the church, and in this he was striving to elevate the best aspirations of the French Revolution into a kind of socialist religion. By combining Christianity and science he hoped to purge the reactionary church establishment which was wholly out of touch with the social needs of his day. He anticipated the industrialisation of the modern world, and believed that science and technology could between them meet the needs of society. In "Nouveau Christianissme" (1825), he argued that it was the duty of religion to improve social conditions for the underprivileged, and called upon European monarchs to undertake this task instead of devoting their time to military aggrandizement. He died in 1825.

Auguste Comte was born in Montpellier in 1798, and became eminent as a philosopher, socialist, anthropolgist, and the founder of Sociology - the Science of Society. He met the Comte de St Simon in 1818, and collaborated with him, serving as his secretary until they parted in 1824. As a Positivist he advocated a scientific system of thought, knowledge, feeling and political action intended to organise knowledge, man and society into a consistent whole. Positivism, which was already anticipated by the Greek Sophists and the Enlightenment, has two basic tenets:- that knowledge must be based upon positive experience, and that beyond fact lies 'pure' logic and mathematical truth. Regarding observation and experience as the only legitimate sources for truth, Positivism is in essence secular, anti-religious and anti-metaphysical. Positivists are usually also Utilitarians - as was John Stuart Mill in the last century, and Bertrand Russell in the twentieth.

To achieve the organisation of knowledge, man and society into a consistent whole as he desired, Comte proposed a new religion based

upon a love of humanity to replace the "crumbling faiths of the past", as he saw the churches. Its devotees were to believe in a communion made up of "all men and women, past, present and future, whose lives are devoted to the well-being and progress of the human race" rather than God.

Between 1846 and 1854 he wrote a four volume "System of Positive Polity" which involved a complete statement of sociology, including volumes dealing with the nature of society, its historical development, and with man as an individual. In this comprehensive work he envisaged the establishment of a "European Council" which would work towards the achievement of the aims of Positivism - improvement of the fabric of society - first in Europe - and thereafter throughout the world.

Unfortunately for him, his ideas lacked popular appeal during his life-time, yet his subsequent influence on the Social Sciences has been considerable. He died in 1857.

Socialism, the first mass international movement, owes much to such pioneers as St. Simon, already referred to, Babeuf, Fourier, and Owen.

St. Simon, (1760-1825) favoured an élitist rather than an égalitarian society, where equal opportunities would ensure that all might reach their full potential. He predicted that in time society would operate like a huge workshop, in which men were treated as responsible beings, and only things were organised. In communities established by some of his followers private property and its hereditary transmission were condemned as major sources of inequality and injustice in society.

Francois-Marie-Charles Fourier, (1772-1837) was an embittered salesman who, out of his personal frustrations, acquired an insight into the ill effects of coercion upon the nature of a society. He

contended that if only people were allowed to work at their own pace, in tune with their temperaments and inclinations, society would be bound by love into a harmonious order, and human spontaneity would replace coercion and external regulation.

Francois-Noel Babeuf, a passionately sincere revolutionary, wrote his "Manifeste des egaux" - calling for universal social equality, while acknowledging the distinctions of sex and age. His concern was to revive the revolutionary ideals, including equality, which he considered were lost sight of. However, as a result of this protest he was to be tried and executed by the new reactionary Directory that had assumed power in France, 1797.

Robert Owen (1771-1858) believed in the eradication of competition, the development of the co-operative system of organisation in industry and agriculture, the growth of a national trades union, and he was also a keen advocate of education and healthy pleasant surroundings for all as means of achieving a just society.

Robert Owen and St. Simon have been described as Utopian Socialists. They attempted to weaken the stranglehold maintained upon the masses by organised religion and nationalist institutions on the grounds that these influences were divisive, but failed because the people of their day were too caught up in ignorance, dogma and superstition to think for themselves. A generation or two later a new generation of philosophers, armed with scientifically-supported arguments instead of mere humanistic sentiments, were to succeed where they had failed. This must surely have been facilitated by the fact that working people of the late nineteenth century were a little more ready than their predecessors, in terms of literacy and emancipation of thought, to receive these ideas, relayed to them through such expanding channels as adult classes, trades union meetings and the written word.

Among the most seminal influences of this generation of philosophers were Charles Darwin and Karl Marx, from whom much of twentieth century thought has been derived. It is a valid observation that the teachings of most such scientific humanists and dialectic materialists are more universalist than European in outlook, but this may be accounted for by the fact that universalism remains the unattainable philosophic ideal, whereas the European cause has increasingly come to be seen by practical men with vision - politicians, industrialists, teachers and journalists - as a realistic transitional step towards the greater ideal.

Charles Darwin was born in Shrewsbury in 1809. His mother died when he was eight, leaving him to be brought up by an elder sister, to whom in later life he attributed his humanitarian outlook. He was to prove a disappointing scholar, both at school and later at university. First he was set to follow in his father's footsteps and train to be a doctor in Edinburgh, and subsequently he attended Cambridge with the intention of entering Holy Orders. Even then, coming under the influence of Charles Lyell, the pioneer geologist, he was drawn to science as a career. The chance invitation to join the captain of H.M.S. Beagle on an expedition to the Pacific coast of South America as a ship's resident biologist, was to prove the great formative influence of his life. In the five years of exploration that followed, 1831-1836, Darwin acquired a fine reputation amongst biologists, and recorded observations of flora and fauna which provided the basis for his subsequent lifetime of scientific conjecture. The first germs were acquired out of which, years later, a striking new view of evolutionary change was to emerge; one which influenced not only subsequent conceptions of the development of the earth's lifeforms - including man, but also has been used to cite a parallel interpretation of the

development of mans' technology and socio-political institutions.

Sir Charles Lyell's "Principles of Geology" (1830) in which he described the evolution of landforms, had a profound effect upon Darwin. Minute observations recorded on the Beagle suggested similar evolutionary development going on within a single species, as well as diversities developing, suggesting that several species might be derived from a single one - such as different forms of lizards, tortoises and birds observed on adjacent Galapagos islands, or between such wingless birds as the South American Rhea and the South African Ostrich. For years after his ideas underwent gestation, but at this time they were not original, in so far as they had been expressed by Montesquieu, his own grandfather - Erasmus Darwin - and Lamarck, to name just a few. These ideas only assumed momentous significance when, having read Malthus' "Essay on Population" in about 1838, the evolutionary process by which such successions and diversities were made possible dawned upon him. Malthus had described the biological checks of famine, pestilence and war which awaited man if population continued to grow unchecked, when world food production on a limited area of available land would be reduced by diminishing returns. Darwin realised that whereas man might be able to offset the ill-effects of diminishing returns by applying improved technology to production, animals remained wholly susceptible to the checks, and thus he arrived at the concept of survival of the fittest. Slow gestation of the theory, with Darwin collecting illustrative examples not only from nature but from the work of stock breeders which showed that nature accomplished through natural selection what man was achieving through selective breeding, lasted from about 1842 until 1858, throughout which time Darwin only shared his thoughts with his closest scientific friends, men like Sir Charles Lyell, Sir Joseph Dalton Hooker, and

Thomas Henry Huxley.

In 1858, however, this long period of reticence on the part of Darwin was rudely interrupted by the discovery of an independent and almost identical formulation of the theory of evolution by Alfred Russel Wallace (1823-1913). This one-time school master had, like Darwin, recorded minute observations of flora and fauna whilst on expeditions to the Amazon and the Malay Archipelago, and had conceived a similar notion of evolution which he had embodied in his "On the Law which has Regulated the Introduction of New Species", (Sarawak, 1855). Like Darwin, too, while recovering from a severe attack of malaria in 1858, he had suddenly hit upon Malthus' essay as holding the key to the evolutionary process, and he wrote post-haste to Charles Darwin in search of reassurance from a respected fellow scientist, little anticipating their remarkable arrival at the same viewpoint. Fortunately, neither man was given to jealous competitiveness, and they were able to collaborate in a joint paper for submission to the Linnean Society in 1858. Both men subsequently published independently of one another. Charles Darwin published "Origin of Species" in 1858, followed by "Descent of Man" in 1871, while Wallace did not publish his "The Malay Archipelago" until 1869. In the intervening years, however, Darwin had not only rocked the philosophical establishment, particularly the scientific and theological sectors of it, but had been immortalised as the originator of the theory in the popular mind. He finally died in 1882. It was Darwin, who, as the centre of a controversy which was widely published, had been instrumental in freeing science from the trammels of theology.

> ..."the advent of evolution in natural history was the consequence of a change from one scientific "episteme" ... to another. The old episteme, creationism, drew on a complex blend of theistic, idealistic, and biblical ideas as a basis for a view of the world as the product of direct or indirect divine activity. This view involved the complete union of science with theology; but it was countered and eventually overcome by a new episteme, positivism, which insisted on the separation of science from theology, and restricted the scientist's attention exclusively to 'secondary' or natural causes and laws".(1)

The same process helped to free philosophical conjecture from a similar constraint, and open it up to popular thinking. A new educated public was now ready to absorb the new liberated ideas, no longer so inhibited or intimidated by dogmas and superstitions as they had been in the past. The implications of Darwin's teachings upon men's view of himself, and recognition of a related evolutionary process operating in the development of human knowledge, skills and socio-economic institutions, were to have yet more far-reaching effects upon human thinking, generally. In one fell swoop Darwin had undermined such beliefs as "Spontaneous Creation", the "Divinity of man", but also notions of racial superiority and nations as exclusive developments. His ideas subsequently influenced the thinking of the liberal humanists.

John Stuart Mill, who lived from 1806-1873, having in his youth adopted the Benthamist cause whilst under paternal domination, subsequently reacted against this intolerant influence. As a result he found it necessary to modify Bentham's single criterion for measuring man's best interest - 'pleasure' - substituting it for 'happiness' as describing more effectively motivations of a higher kind; but also to reject his father's rather iconoclastic attitude to the creative arts, since he had grown to look upon the philosophies of Wordsworth and

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1. John Durant, Darwin and Christian orthodoxy, a review of Neal C. Gillespie's Charles Darwin and the Problem of Creation, in the Times Higher Education Supplement, dated 25-1-1980, p.15.

Coleridge as so significant that he regarded them as the "seminal minds of the age".

In later life, Mill was influenced in his economic attitudes by the Positivist Auguste Comte and by the Economist David Ricardo, while in his attitude to womens' emancipation he was influenced by his wife. This eclectic approach was very characteristic of Mill - who drew upon a variety of sources from which he developed a synthesis. Apparent inconsistencies over a period of time therefore reflect the development of his philosophy under the impact of new ideas. In this, and his tolerant liberal attitudes, may be detected the pervading influence of Charles Darwin, who, through demonstrating the evolution of present-day life-forms from very diverse past life-forms, encouraged a more tolerant and relativist attitude to human ideas and institutions, such as Mill was to display in his mature years.

Thomas Henry Huxley, who lived from 1825 to 1895, has been described as "Darwin's bulldog", because, in Darwin's own words, "he has been the mainstay in England of the principle of the gradual evolution of organic things".

Son of an unsuccessful Ealing schoolmaster, and with only limited formal education, Huxley was largely self-taught. At the age of fifteen he secured a scholarship to the Charing Cross Hospital Medical School, and although this support came to an end before he was qualified, he was able to get the post of Assistant Surgeon aboard H.M.S. Rattlesnake in 1846. During the subsequent four years of naval service, he kept meticulous records of marine specimens he observed and contributed to the transactions of the Royal Society to such good effect, that he had earned a reputation with its members before his return home in 1850. During the ensuing three years the Navy gave him leave of absence for research, but he was subsequently struck off the Navy list

for refusing to return to sea until his research was completed. By this time he had also abandoned plans to complete his degree, having been elected F.R.S. in 1851 at the age of twenty six. During his subsequent career he remained on the staff of the Government School of Mines in London, which he was instrumental in developing into the Normal School of Science and eventually the Royal College of Science. Huxley distinguished himself as a scientist and author, champion of public education. Regarding clericalism as the "deadly enemy of science", he fought a heroic fight not only against clergy who sought to ridicule Darwin's theory, but also against reactionary scientists who preferred to side with them. Yet he was never an atheist but rather an agnostic - one who hated dogmatism, yet believed that children should be taught a religion composed of "what is wise and beautiful".

His powerful support of Darwin's evolutionary cause notwithstanding, he was strongly opposed to its indiscriminate application by others to ideas of human development, confounding 'evolution' with 'progress' and 'fittest' with 'best'. "Progress", Huxley asserted, does not lie in "initiating the cosmic process, still less in running away from it, but in combatting it". In other words, if it was supposed that progress lay in submission to the principle of "survival of the fittest", then man must remain forever under the same constraints as the animal kingdom. True progress could only lie in helping him to overcome it through educational and social reform.

Herbert Spencer, born in 1820, a self-educated ex-teacher and journalist, was enabled, through receipt of a legacy in 1853, to devote the rest of his life to philosophical writing. His work spanned the fields of psychology, biology, sociology and morals. In his "The Development Hypothesis" (1852) he anticipated Darwin and Wallace

by seven years in rejecting Special Creation and arguing in favour of evolution as a process moving from homogeneous towards heterogeneous, and operating not only in the animal kingdom, but in the development of the solar system, human society, industry, art, science and language. After Darwin's work was published he accepted natural selection as providing the mechanism of the evolutionary process, and himself coined the phrase "survival of the fittest". In spheres social and economic, however, he favoured laissez faire, believing that 'fittest' means 'best', that evolution is the way for progress, a view in total contradiction to those of Darwin or Thomas Huxley. He also predicted that society's evolution towards the heterogeneous would pass, in transition, through socialism, war and total dissolution, to a final state of individualism. He died in 1903.

In the twentieth century the scientific humanist movement has been represented by John Dewey in the U.S.A., and Bertrand Russell and Julian Huxley in the U.K.

John Dewey was born in Vermont, U.S.A. in 1859, and is now famous for his work in psychology, in establishing the progressive movement in Baltimore, where he took his Ph.D. in 1884. In his early career he studied Hegelian Philosophy, but while on the staff of Chicago University in the 1890s, he acquired an interest in evolutionary biology and psychology, which led him to develop a more scientific and secular view of human affairs, regarding ideas "as tools for solving problems encountered in the environment", nature as the ultimate reality, and man as a product of nature. In this philosophy Dewey's inspiration stemmed from Darwin's evolutionary theory. He died in 1952 at the age of 92 years.

Bertrand Russell was born in Monmouthshire in 1872. As a child he displayed precocious talents, and went on to a brilliant career at

Cambridge between 1890 and 1893. His liberal, anarchist, socialist outlook, and sceptical atheistic temperament was in the positivist tradition, and indeed he rather resembled his godfather, John Stuart Mill ... (with whom he)

> ... "shared his utilitarianism, his concern for the rights of women, his belief that social justice was hardly possible without some form of socialism, and his philosophical empiricism".(1)

In all Russell made contributions to philosophy, mathematics, science, ethics, sociology, education, history, religion, politics and polemics.

The premises upon which Bertrand Russell based his philosophy were that a scientific viewpoint of the world was essential, that the logic employed should be mathematical, that knowledge should be pared down to the minimum, atomic, facts, and couched in the simplest, most basic terms.

Bertrand Russell, living in the twentieth century when opportunities for making a practical contribution to the cause of universalism are greater - thanks to instant communication, rapid travel, and a greater scale of human activities generally made possible by rapid technological developments, was able to participate in direct personal action at the international scale which left his adherents in little doubt that he regarded such action as implicit in his philosophical beliefs. For example, he was an active broadcaster on both sides of the Atlantic, and he served as a focus to pacifist rebellion as in his condemnation of the Vietnam War, his active participation in the H-Bomb protest movement and with the Civil Disobedience Lobby. As a result he was to become a youth cult figure throughout the world before his death at the age of 98 in 1970.

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1. A.J. Ayer, Russell, (1972) p.150.

In addition to these active protests against war, however, Bertrand Russell spoke out explicitly for internationalism. He described nationalism as "the most dangerous vice of our time",(1) and argued that "A world state or federation of states, if it is to be successful, will have to decide questions ... to render the appeal to force unecessary".(2)

As regards how such world government would probably be achieved, he reluctantly acquiesced to the idea that Communism might have to prevail over Capitalism before this was made possible. Whatever power might eventually be dominant, however, he was convinced that some such compulsion would prove necessary initially, in order to overcome nationalism and the anarchic impulses inherent in man.

> "Just as the substitution of orderly government for monarchy in the middle ages depended upon the victory of royal power, so the substitution of order for anarchy in international relations, if it comes about, will come about through the superior power of some one nation or group of nations. And only after such a single government has been constituted will it be possible for the evolution towards a democratic form of government to begin".(3)

Finally, Julian Huxley, grandson of Thomas Henry Huxley and a leading exponent of evolutionary humanism, was born in 1857. As a biologist he conducted experiments with hormones, and counted amongst his research interests ornithology, developmental processes and ecology. His career spanned such varied appointments as the Rice Institute in Houston, Texas, and a Professorship in Zoology at King's College, London. During seven years as the secretary of the Zoological Society, he contributed to the development of the Whipsnade and Regent's Park Zoos.

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1. Bertrand Russell, Education and the Social Order, (1932) p.138.
2. Bertrand Russell, Principles of Social Reconstruction, (1916) p.66.
3. Bertrand Russell, New hopes for a changing world, (1951) . 77.

In addition to this work as a scientist and scientific administrator, he was an eminent philosopher of the rationalist school, and made a distinguished contribution to internationalism as the first Director General of U.N.E.S.C.O. He died in London in 1975 at the age of 88 years.

The other great philosophical source, contemporary with that of Darwin, was Karl Marx. Whereas scientific humanism has retained its universalist outlook as we have demonstrated, however, the present-day adherents of Marxism are divided by nationalist loyalties and serious divergencies in their interpretations of the philosophy and its practical implications. Nevertheless, Marx and his disciples Engels and Lenin were avowed internationalists, who would have regretted such a development.

Karl Marx, sociologist, economist, author of the Communist Manifesto of 1848 and of "Das Kapital" (1867) was born to Jewish parents at Trier, in Prussia, in 1818. Educated at Bonn and later Berlin University, he was even this early in his career marked out as a subversive, and so was obliged to complete his doctorate at the more accomodating University of Jena in 1841. In 1843 pressure was brought upon him to leave his homeland, and subsequently Prussian diplomatic persuasion of the French authorities led to his being hounded from Paris, whereupon he moved to Brussels in 1845, in which city his momentous collaboration with Engels began.

During the "Year of Revolutions", 1848, Marx and Engels published the universalist and anti-class Communist Manifesto with its famous and oft misquoted declaration:-

> "The Proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries, Unite!"

As a result of his activities in that year he was again expelled from Prussia, then from Paris, and so subsequently he settled in London, where he was to undergo years of poverty, during which he eked out a precarious living as the European Correspondent to the New York Tribune, his meagre earnings supplemented with gifts of money from his loyal collaborator, Engels. During this time he built up a reputation as a philosophical writer, which culminated in 1864 with being called upon to hold in the establishment of the International Working Mens' Association - the so-called "First International" of which, for a time, he was a leading spirit. Eventually the organisation lost its impetus, and was finally disbanded in 1876. By this time, however, Marx himself had declined in health, and following his wife's death in 1881, he succumbed to "chronic mental depression" and died in London, 1883. At his funeral, Engels observed, in the funeral oration, that, "just as Darwin discovered the Law of Evolution in organic nature, so Marx discovered the Law of Evolution in human history". Certainly there was a parallel as Marx had himself been aware of; indeed he had sought in 1867 when "Das Kapital" was published, to win the seal of Darwin's approval by dedicating it to him. Darwin, however, whether from prudence, failure to recognise, or - much more likely - conscious rejection of the latent political implications in his own work, had declined the offer.

Marxist political theory was based upon the Hegelian concept of Dialectic, that philosophical ideas are evolved out of a process in which one idea - the thesis - is flatly contradicted by another - the antithesis - a process out of which a new and more potent idea emerges - the synthesis. Marx developed this idea into a concept of history - 'dialectic materialism' - in which he believed that human society had to and would pass through inevitable stages by a similar dialectic

process - from City State, through Feudal Kingdom, Bourgeois Capitalist State, and then, as a result of an inevitable class-war, through the Dictatorship of the Proletarist to a perfect classless society to which he was dedicated. Marx regarded this class struggle as the central fact of social evolution - "The history of all hitherto existing human society is the history of class struggles" and so it was the duty of communists in all the world to co-operate with "historical necessity" in bringing about the revolution which would usher in the age of the proletariat. He therefore assumed that all working men everywhere would have the will to fight for one another to this end - and so ironically he saw no need to work specifically for internationalism, because it was implicit in the Proletariat Cause.

In 1889 a Second International was established, a kind of international parliament of socialist movements rather than a unified society. Despite its apparent solidarity, when conflicting nationalistic loyalties were called into question on the eve of the First World War, the Second International disintegrated.

In the U.S.S.R. under Lenin (1870-1924) the Czarist Regime was toppled (1917), and Lenin anticipated similar revolutions spreading throughout Europe, and the Establishment of a Third International. In point of fact an uprising in Germany was suppressed, and similar Communist coups in Hungary and Bavaria failed to consolidate their control. The Comintern survived to call its Second World Congress, in 1920, but displayed the intention of the Russians to subordinate international objectives to their own national political ends, which caused the foreign delegations to break away. These groups became national communist parties, and even amongst them the hard-line communist revolutionaries became something of a minority, the majority placing their hopes upon democratic reform in preference to revolution.

After Lenin's death in 1924 an ideological battle developed between Leon Trotsky, who was in favour of a worldwide revolutionary movement after the traditions of Marx and Lenin, and Josef Stalin who was in favour of a Russian movement. Stalin prevailed, Trotsky was dismissed from office and finally assassinated in distant Mexico, and so Russian Communism today is a nationalist movement, as also is that of Yugoslavia, Cuba and China.

In Europe, between the two world wars, Communist parties were driven underground by the Fascist governments of Germany and Italy, which dominated Continental European politics up until 1945. Apart from the Communist regimes of China, Russia and Eastern Europe, since 1945 a number of Third World countries have come under professedly Communist or Marxist dictatorships. Elsewhere, in the Western World, Communism has made very little headway in the major industrial countries, but in Western Europe, socialist, social democratic and Labour parties have emerged which have worked towards the establishment, as in Britain, of "mixed" Economies and Welfare State provisions through piecemeal democratic processes of government.

In the past the British Labour Party has also stood for internationalism. Bertrand Russell, whose internationalist outlook and actions we have already outlined, was himself a Labour Candidate in the 1920s. R.H. Tawney, Professor of Economic History of the School of Economics and Political Science in the University of London, and a staunch supporter of the Workers' Educational Association, took a very similar viewpoint to Russell towards nationalism when he wote:-

> "What confronts us today is ... the collapse of two great structures of thought and government which for long have held man's allegiance, but which now have broken down. The first is the system of nation states ..., the second is an economic system which takes as its premise that every group and individual shall be free to grab what they

> - can get, and hold what they grab ... In the past they worked, though with endless waste and ill-will, they now work no longer. The result is the anarchy, international and economic, which threatens to overwhelm us".(1)

More recently, in the immediate post-war period, the British Labour Party was in the forefront of moves for a united Europe.

> "There must be recognition of an international authority superior to the individual states ... Europe must federate or perish".(2)

It was the Labour Government under Prime Minister Harold Wilson who finally negotiated Britain's entry into the EEC in 1973.

Apart from the Marxist-inspired movements considered above, and the scientific humanist tradition of philosophers which has also advocated world internationalism, it has been the two World Wars and their disastrous consequences which have persuaded many Europeans to work for internationalism in general, and European unification in particular.

The old League of Nations, established to promote international co-operation and world peace after 1919 foundered in barely twenty years on international tensions and economic rivalries. More specific work for European Unity seems to have been largely confined to the period since 1945, although a loose economic union established between Belgium and Luxembourg as early as 1921 was later to provide the nucleus for further union.

At the end of the Second World War the economies of Western Europe were disrupted and run down, and the United States of America, concerned to redress the political balance of the Old World by financing its reconstruction, took the initiative of extending an offer

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1. Richard Henry Tawney, "Equality", in the Preface of R.W.G. Mackay's "Towards a United States of Europe", Hutchinson, (1961), pIX.

2. Clement R. Atlee, "Labour's Peace Aims", ibid., p.X.

of financial support through the Marshall-Aid Scheme (proposed 1947), but only on condition that the war-weary nations of Europe should co-ordinate their national reconstruction programmes into a single plan for Europe, to achieve effective and lasting economic recovery. In April 1948 the Organisation for European Economic Recovery was set up to administer Marshall-Aid. Anticipating this, the tiny economic union of 1921, already referred to, had been extended to include the Netherlands, and so Benelux was established, 1944. In March 1948 Benelux, Britain and France signed the Brussels Treaty for mutual military, economic, social and cultural co-operation and aid. Unfortunately, although the Council of Europe was established in May 1946 to promote greater unity amongst its members, and the continental members had already intimated that they wished to set up a legislative assembly, Britain drew back from this. In like fashion Britain willingly accepted membership of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation for mutual defence when this was set up in April 1949, yet refused to commit itself to the economic association of the "Six" - Belgium, Luxembourg, Holland, France, Italy and West Germany - in the European Coal and Steel Community when this was set up in 1952. When, therefore, the nucleus of the united Europe was finally established by the Treaties of Rome in 1957, it was again through the initiative of the "Six", and did not include Britain, or a number of other countries, unwilling, for one reason or another, to commit themselves to the long-term ideal.

Such evidences of reluctance on the part of nation states to commit themselves to European unification, raise a final question:-

> If the case put forward by philosophers throughout the centuries in favour of universalism and European integration is so rational and persuasive, why then is it that the forces devoted to nationalism, separatism and sectarianism continue to be so much in evidence?.

The answer appears to be that, while there appears to be some kind of "historical necessity" at work, carrying the cause of European Unity forward on the crest of powerful socio-economic, technological and political forces which are helping to shape the destiny of the entire modern world, at the same time there appears to be a 'reactionary backlash' in operation, resulting from the efforts of those who sense that their entrenched positions of power and privilege are under threat from these same forces, and seek instead to retain the 'status quo'. If reference here to "historical necessity" seems reminiscent of Marxist dialectic, the parallel ends there. The 'necessity' referred to is not to be viewed simplistically as depending upon the operation of economic forces alone, nor is the struggle to be regarded as arising from class conflict, or out of a confrontation between supporters of nationalism and the united Europe. Nor, for that matter, is the struggle likely to culminate in a 'synthesis' after the dialectic model. Instead it seems more probable that integration will be achieved only after the forces of nationalism and separatism have been discredited in the eyes of most Europeans, and then only after a painful period of transition.

CHAPTER III: DEVELOPMENTS TOWARDS EUROPEAN UNITY SINCE 1957.

These developments may be considered under three main counts. First, there have been developments towards political integration. These have included constitutional changes designed to create supranational institutions and procedures which can eventually form a nucleus for federal government, progress towards the display of concerted political action, in terms of the framing and maintenance of common foreign policies or at least a level of political co-operation on the part of member governments, and the extension of Community membership in accordance with the provisions of the Rome Treaties.

Secondly there have been those directed towards the achievement of economic integration, through the development, elaboration and fuller implementation of the objectives laid down under the Rome Treaties for all the member countries. These have included slow progress towards monetary union, and towards the greater mobility of capital and labour.

Finally, through the direct efforts of the Community's Council of Ministers to influence affairs in their respective member countries, the work of the Council of Europe, as well as the activities of various pro-European organisations and pressure groups, there have been some developments which help bring nearer the cultural and social integration of Europe. Notable amongst these organisations have been the C.C.C., the O.E.C.D., the A.E.D.E., and others. Consideration will be given to their inception, historical development and work in Chapter 5, while the specific contributions they have made through education to European integration form part of the subject matter of Chapters 7 to 14. Although many of these organisations pre-dated the Rome Treaties, the

signing of these treaties may be regarded as a watershed in the process of European integration, and so it is relevant at the outset to examine the provisions of the treaties in some detail.

The Rome Treaties were signed in Rome by the "Six" - France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg, on the 25th March 1957.

One treaty established the European Atomic Energy Commission, Euratom, initially intended to research the "use of nuclear energy for peaceful purposes", but more recently in research projects relating to all kinds of energy sources. The other treaty provisions were directed towards European economic integration, although in the preamble, the "Six" made clear their intention

> "to establish the foundation of ever-closer union among the European peoples ... resolved to strengthen the safeguards of peace and freedom by combining their resources into a single unit, and calling upon the other people of Europe who share their ideal to join in their effort, (they) have decided to create a European Economic Community".(1)

In short, their intention was that economic integration would not be an end in itself, but would lead on towards political unification, i.e. the functionalist approach.

Under the terms of the Rome Treaty establishing the E.E.C. the following conditions were made upon the six signatories:-

1. Customs duties and import/export quota restrictions between them were to be gradually lowered and finally abolished. (By July 1968 this had been accomplished for all but certain types of agricultural commodities).
2. A common external customs tariff and a common commercial policy towards non-members was to be established and maintained.

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1. The E.E.C. Treaty, Preamble to, The European Communities, Brussels, 1957.

3. Freedom of movement for various categories of labour, services and capital within the market was to be established and maintained.
4. A common policy should be established for each of agriculture, transport and trade.
5. The right of any firm in a member country to establish itself in any other member country, subject always to the taxation terms and laws in force in that country, was to be established and maintained.
6. No government was to be permitted to protect its citizens or firms from any fair competition from the citizens or firms of another member country.
7. Association between the Community and countries outside the Community were to be developed for mutual advantage. Provided such associates were in Europe and met certain qualifying conditions, such as possession of a democratic form of government and a certain level of economic development, they were eligible to be considered for full membership.

In recognition of the fact that the ultimate purpose of the Community was to achieve political union, the Council of Ministers, the Commission, The Court of Justice, and the European Parliament were established with legislative, executive, judiciary and consultative functions respectively.

The Council of Ministers is a body of ministers from each member country, although its precise composition at any given time will depend upon the subject currently under review, so that Ministers of Agriculture, Finance, Social Affairs, Education may be convened at different times to attend "Technical" or "Specialist" councils, although the General Council is made up of Foreign Ministers.

In addition, since 1974, the Prime Ministers - or in the case of France, the President - all meet three times a year in the European

Council for a Summit Meeting, to help resolve problems relating to the Community. Despite this relatively new development, the Council of Ministers is still the most effective decision-making institution because it meets so much more frequently. For example, Ministers of Agriculture or Foreign Ministers may meet as often as once a month and for three days on each occasion.

The first loyalty of each minister is to his own country - indeed it is his duty to express or defend his country's position. It is through these meetings that Commission proposals are passed into Law.

When the Council meets in Brussels, it is armed not only with the Commission's proposals but also with information prepared for it by the Secretariat and by COREPER - Committee of Permanent Representatives made up of senior officials of the national administrations in Brussels.

In dealing with very important matters, as for example the candidature of a new member of the E.E.C., a unanimous decision is required. In fairly serious matters a "Qualified majority" is required, arrived at under a system of weighted votes under which large countries have ten votes each, medium countries such as Belgium, Netherlands and Greece five votes, small countries - Denmark and Eire, three votes and Luxembourg only two votes. To pass a motion there must be 46 votes out of a possible 63 cast in favour of the motion by at least seven nations. Thus the interests of the small nations are safeguarded, in so far as the votes of the large and medium-sized nations cannot carry the motion alone.(1) A simple majority will suffice in less-important matters, but in practice Council Ministers prefer unanimous decisions to be reached.

The Commission has 14 members - two each from France, Italy, West Germany and the U.K., making eight, and one each for Greece, Luxembourg,

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1. Anthony J.C. Kerr, "The Common Market and how it works" Pergamon Press (1977) P.75.

Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands and Eire. Each Commissioner is appointed by his national government on a four year term, and takes an oath of loyality to the Community, and independence of his home country. Once appointed the Commissioners act as a collegiate body, taking decisions by a simple majority and accepting collective responsibility for all Commission activities. A President and four Vice-Presidents direct its operations for a term of four years. The Presidency is rotated amongst the member states.

The Treaties require the Commission to undertake quasi-political and executive functions such as - the initiation of policies, including drafting of proposals for Community legislation, implementation of Community policies in the member states, once agreed, and monitoring of implemented Community policies in the member states.

It is empowered to take member states to the Court of Justice, and commercial companies too, if they fail to carry out Community rules. If a state or company is accused of such an offence ir is allowed a month to defend its own actions before being ordered to conform. In one recent year, out of thirty-six cases heard, thirty-three settled out of court. In 1972 the Commission enacted 2,590 new regulations as well as enacting the existing ones. It is also responsible for administering the Community budget.

The Commissioners are supported by a multi-national administration made up of twenty separate departments or directorates-general (D.G.S.) placed under the responsibility of individual commissioners. The Director-Generals who head these D.Gs have to be of a different nationality to the Commissioner who heads that D.G. The total Commission Staff (including translators and interpretors) number over 7,000.(1)

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1. Hugh Arbuthnott and Geoffrey Edwards (Editors), "A Common man's guide to the Common Market", The Federal Trust for Education and Research, (1975), p.17.

The Commission's proposals may come from any member - each of whom is responsible for one or more specific areas of Community interest represented by a D.G., which acts as his back-up staff and researches any proposal he makes, drafts it for the Commission (after due consultation with parliament) to vote upon. When it has been passed by a simple majority, it is sent to the Council.

Although it is therefore the Council of Ministers which have the prerogative of direct policy-making, it usually only deals with matters proposed by the Commission. It is the Commission which draws up the proposals, and the Council of Ministers can only amend such proposals if this is decided by an unanimous vote. The Commission therefore has a great deal of power in selecting and determining policies as well as complete power in the enforcement of such policies once enacted. Thanks to its executive powers it is in a position to goad nation states into action, and so provide a necessary impetus towards European integration.

The Court of Justice has eleven nationally nominated judges, including one from each member country, assisted by a board of four advocates-general, and together they comprise a court of final appeal. Their President is elected by the judges themselves. The Court, with its seat at Luxembourg, was established by the Paris Treaty of 1951, and was later, in 1958, granted jurisdiction over the E.E.C., Euratom and the E.C.S.C.

Although it is the most supra-national of all the institutions, it is also the least resented, in that its functions and enactments are seen as stemming directly from the functioning of the Community. The Court's main function is the implementation and correct interpretation of the Rome Treaties throughout the Community, which also requires it to make rulings when Comminity institutions or member states or

industrial firms act in contravention of, or in conflict with, the obligations or intentions of the Treaties.

The court's decisions are taken in camera by a simple majority, making the court an effective, independent and decisive watch-dog, since none of the dissenting views expressed are published. The four advocates-general sum up, in public, the case before the court, and deliver an expert legal opinion before the judges deliver their final judgement.

Since the Commission is appointed, and the Council of Ministers is a meeting of national representatives, the European Parliament is intended to be the democratic institution of the Community. Since 1979 it has been directly elected by specially devised Euro-constituencies. Before that time it was made up of national delegations from the respective member countries.

The European Parliament started out as the Assembly of the E.C.S.C. in 1952 with 78 representatives of the "Six", but by 1978 it had been increased to 198 representatives from the "Nine". The first directly elected parliament was made up of 410 members - France, West Germany, Italy and the U.K. each returned 81 members, Holland 25, Belgium 24, Denmark 16, Ireland 15 and Luxembourg 6, but with the accession of Greece with 24 members, the European Parliament now boasts 434 members from the "Ten".

Unfortunately for the cause of European Unity, since a strong European Parliament is prerequisite for the establishment of effective federal government, France and Britain have, in particular, resisted proposals for the extension of the powers of the European Parliament, and indeed, made curtailment of these powers a condition of acceding to the plans for direct elections in 1979.(1) Their motives,

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1. Hugh Arbuthnott and Geoffrey Edwards, op.cit., p.24.

characteristically, in view of their past record in relation to the establishment of the Council of Europe and the E.C.S.C., appear to have been the preservation of national sovreignty, and determination to prevent national interests being subordinated to the common interests of Europeans.

Nevertheless, despite the various obstacles which have been reared against its acquisition of power, the European Parliament today is far more influential than it was initially. Amongst its difficulties is the problem that its members speak seven languages - including French, German, Italian, Dutch, English, Danish and Greek, and that they represent some fifty political parties, ranging in their beliefs between Communist and Conservative. Furthermore, in addition to their permanent base in Luxembourg, the European Parliament holds sessions in Brussels, where their specialist committees are able to liaise with other Community officials, but also in Strasbourg. This endless commuting of members with their staff and documents is costly, arduous and time-consuming, and so greatly reduces the potential political effectiveness of the European Parliament.

When the European Parliament receives a Commission proposal it studies it in one of its twelve Standing Committees who appoint a Rapporteur to investigate the proposal and lead a debate on it. Then the Committee, having deliberated, reports back to the Parliament, who vote on the proposal. In 1973, for example, the Parliament met for twelve sessions totalling 52 working days, and 222 motions were prepared and discussed at 296 committee meetings. This was in the days when there were fewer members and far less time available.

Once the European Parliament has been consulted and arrived at its decision, however, it has only limited negotiatory power, and no legislative powers of its own. In the last analysis, the Council and

Commission can choose to ignore its advice. Although it has the power vested in it to censure and dismiss the Commission if the censure is passed with two-thirds majority, it has never exercised this right, and it has no say in the selection of the next Commission. Its greatest power lies in respect to the budget of the Community, where it can bring pressure to bear upon the Council through budgetary concertation procedure. As early as 1970 Parliament was granted limited powers to with-hold the Budget balance remaining after all treaty obligations, for example, after under C.A.P., had been met. This was, of-course, a meagre percentage of the whole, but nonetheless it gave the European Parliament some negotiatory power by which to get its wishes implemented through the Council of Ministers. Now, through the 1975 Budget Amending Treaty, the European Parliament has been granted an extension of this power, to one of confirming or rejecting the Community Budget as a whole. The new budgetary concertation procedure also requires the Council of Ministers to engage in discussions with Parliament until their viewpoints have been reconciled.(1) The national governments have, however, continued to resist any attempt to vest the European Parliament with legislative power of its own, and it remains a purely consultative and advisory body, even though it is now able to demand that its views should be at least taken into account.

It will be seen from the above that the constitution of the E.E.C. has from the start been made up of a combination of international and supranational institutions and procedures. Safeguards have been incorporated to hold the supranational elements in check, largely at the instigation of France, and latterly the U.K. In the early days of the Community the Federalists were openly supranationalistic, but the view of Functionalists such as Monnet was to prevail, that given the

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1. Hugh Arbuthnott and Geoffrey Edwards, Editors, op.cit., p.24.

appropriate machinery for supranational government, the effective power could be acquired gradually as member states came to feel the need for it. Even though the present powers of the European Parliament fall far short of those one might expect of a federal government, the slow accretion of powers by the European institutions, including Parliament, over the years, gives some support for the functionalist view.

The need has been felt to move forward towards greater European political integration, and the process has gone on despite economic recession since the early seventies, which has served only to delay rather than to check it.

Evidences of these moves towards European integration have included not merely developments specifically political in character, but those tending towards economic integration, or simply those calculated to increase Europe's sense of solidarity. Nor has the progress been confined solely to developments within the Community, although E.E.C. institutions have certainly contributed a major share in the process. An attempt will be made to enumerate just some of those developments in due course.

Extension of the E.E.C. has been remarkably rapid in recent years. After 1957, and following a relatively long period of internal consolidation during which France under President Charles de Gaulle strove to preserve a "European Europe", the "Six" reopened negotiations for the U.K., Ireland, Denmark and Norway to join the Community. In point of fact Norway withdrew her application, but still the E.E.C. became the "Nine" in 1973. With the accession of Greece in 1981 the Community became the "Ten". Spain and Portugal may join in 1984, and Turkey, Yugoslavia, Sweden, Norway, Austria, Switzerland and possibly Israel could be future candidates for membership. The more hard-line European would wish to include all Eastern Europe in the Community as well.

Although political strengthening of the E.E.C. through constitutional change remains slow in face of reluctance on the part of countries to surrender their national sovereignty, very real progress has been made towards the growth of political co-operation between the nations, and Europe is increasingly seen as a unified force to be reckoned with.

Originally the European nations were very suspicious of any kind of concerted action as prejudicial to their sovereignty and national interests, but gradually the distinction between intergovernmental political co-operation and Community economic relationships has become blurred with the economic issues increasingly recognised as having political implications. This has been especially true when, in dealing with Third World countries, the Community authorities have found that these countries do not always recognise their fine distinction between High and Low Politics, and have been called upon to give a lead in international affairs.(1)

Even before the Hague Summit of 1969, following the resignation of President de Gaulle, where political union and co-operation were both discussed, the E.E.C. had found it increasingly difficult to negotiate economic agreements without the political weight and prestige to give it creditability. Not only Third World countries, but also the U.S.A., preferred to negotiate with a single Community authority on politico-economic issues. Consequently, at the Hague Summit, the Davignon Committee was set up to look into the question, and in its report, published in October of the following year, proposed the setting up of additional constitutional machinery as follows. First, there should be a Conference of Ministers made up of national Foreign Ministers but

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1. Hugh Arbuthnott and Geoffrey Edwards, Editors, op.cit., p.167ff,

meeting in a quite different capacity from that of the Community's Council of Ministers, on two occasions each year in the capital of its president's country. Secondly, there should be a Political Committee, made up of Political Directors - very like the E.E.C.'s Permanent Representatives, and who would meet four times per annum. Specific issues could be handed over to working groups, over whom the reigning president's country would act as co-ordinator, while the president would report on current progress and developments to the European Parliament. This machinery was intended, in the words of the report,

> "... to strengthen their (the Nation State's) solidarity by promoting the harmonisation of their views ... and where possible, and desirable, common actions".

This new machinery has made possible a continuous debate on the character of European integration. This dual function of Foreign Ministers on both the intergovernmental "Conference" and the Community Council has subsequently had the effect of blurring the distinction between the "Nine Governments" - as it then was - and the Community. This was very soon to be demonstrated at the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe at which thirty five delegates from Europe and the U.S.A. met to discuss security, human rights and economic co-operation. The economic considerations led to the E.E.C. Commission being in attendance at the conference, and subsequent negotiations between European and Arab leaders again emphasised the politico-economic nature of their deliberations.

The 1972 Summit agreed to extend the range of co-operation to medium and long-term positions. The 1973 Summit extended the number of subsequent meetings to four instead of two per annum, and set up a system of Political Correspondents to liaise with foreign ministries.

Thereafter Political Directors were to meet, not four times a year, but monthly. A Telex system designated COREU, was created to enable foreign ministries to keep in closer touch. This has all added up to narrowing the distinction between the Community and the "Ten", and the achievement of a closer collective involvement in international affairs. As a result the "Ten" share a common procedure which enables them to arrive nearer to a common foreign policy.

The Tindemans Report(1), published in 1976, recommended the fusion of the Conference of Ministers with the Council of Ministers, leaving the structures below separate and intact. Although co-operation between the two has improved continuously, fears that the proposal would lead to supranational control of foreign policy has so far delayed any such merger.

The rate of political integration has been slow, but the Commission itself published a memorandum to the Council in June 1975, and indeed this provided the basis of some of Monsieur Tindeman's proposals for future development, designed to provoke discussion amongst his fellow ministers, which was published the following year. A summary of both these documents' suggested reforms is provided below.

The Memorandum to the Council recommends that the Community should run not only those affairs currently under Community control, but that its jurisdiction should be extended into the fields of monetary, budgetary, social, regional and foreign policy. In pursuit of these ends an E.E.C. Central Bank, or a common system of central banks with pooled reserves, should be established. The Community Budget should be enlarged to give the Community the means of transferring resources between social categories, and from one income group to another, across State boundaries. This would reduce national expenditure commensurately,

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1. L. Tindemans, Report on European Union to the European Council, 1976.

since the Community budget would provide for more rationalised expenditure of the available resources. Major areas in which Community expenditure was recommended included national programmes which would require support as at present, but also direct intervention to provide for Community objectives such as greater help for migrant workers, improvement of working conditions generally, and the promotion of industrial democracy.

In the spheres of foreign policy and defence, as already noted with reference to M. Tindemans' recommendations in the field of inter-governmental political co-operation, the Commission regarded some rationalisation of the existing arrangements to be desirable - best achieved by merging the Conference of Ministers and its parallel body in the Community, the Council of Ministers, into a single body - so that the Foreign Ministers involved would be able to discuss all matters arising without artificial distinctions arising, as at present. A common foreign policy should be established, based upon majority decisions, dealing with such matters as relations with Third World countries, designed to help initiate a more equitable world economic order, European Security, relations with the United States, and crises arising within Europe or in its immediate environs.

In the Commission's opinion, the European Community should show a strong common line towards the outside world, whatever the differences which must first be resolved within it. This would apply to relations with the developing world - in which field the Community should hold the bulk of national credits earmarked for economic aid, and a common policy towards the economic problems themselves maintained.

A continuous dialogue should be maintained with the United States, but particularly as regards defence, and to this end one member of the Council of Ministers should hold this brief. Europe should have an

agreed Common Defence Policy, taking into account the divergent national views and interests, but establishing a single rationalised system which would depend upon a uniform contribution from each of the nation states based upon its G.N.P. There should be continuous liaison between the member states, and co-operation in rationalising their national armament industries so as to reduce defence costs to the Community as a whole.

Rules arrived at by majority decision should be made binding upon all member states when confronted by crises such as that precipitated by the oil and natural gas shortages in 1976, both in relation to one another, but also in relation to neighbouring states outside the Community, e.g. relations between oil-less Denmark with Community oil-producers like Holland, or between the member states and the major oil producers of the Middle East.

The Commission also recommends radical constitutional reforms of the Community's existing institutions, and predictably these proposals were received very coolly by the national governments.

One proposal is for a bicameral parliament, one house directly elected on a population basis as at present, the other, like the American Senate, made up of an equal number of members from each state. This "Second Chamber" would take over the existing Council of Ministers' function of defending national interests, while the Parliament or "First Chamber" would take over the present Commission's legislative functions of making regulations and drafting laws. The Commission might survive as an advisory or "watch-dog" committee, to safeguard the new European Constitution.

The Tindemans Report, published a year later, is very similar in concept, but couched in more cautious terms and more restrained in its proposals, even though Tindemans makes no secret of his own federalist

convictions. Basically he advocated that the existing constitution should be modified rather than radically reformed.

Tindemans began by justifying his proposals on the grounds that Europeans were looking to a United Europe to give them a greater influence in world affairs, to bring about the creation of a more democratic just and equitable society, and to show early fruits of European solidarity in terms of the improved quality of social and cultural life. It was time, Tindemans alleged, that the Community committed itself to a new stage of development, something transitional between the present Community and a complete federation. A new treaty should take account of the following new objectives in developing the Community within the framework of its existing constitution - the development of common foreign, economic and monetary, industrial, agricultural, energy, research, social and regional policies designed to give rise to improved institutions, radical reforms and an improved quality of life which would demonstrate to ordinary Europeans that a United Europe is the essential key to real and effective progress.

Tindemans' foreign policy proposals were practically identical to those of the Commission Memorandum of the previous year.

As regards a common economic and monetary policy, there is as yet no practicalknowledge on how to institute such a policy, nor have the member countries got sufficient confidence in one another. Tindemans has therefore recommended that the Council of Ministers should open discussions on the subject, and also that they should go ahead with the introduction of a unified currency in Europe by use of a transitional device, allowing those countries ready to proceed at once to join in "Snake" ahead of those less economically ready. Fuller details of E.M.U., the Snake, and the two-tier proposal are subsequently considered under the subject of progress towards economic integration.

Tindemans did not simply regard the snake as a mere mechanism for mutually supporting and restraining national currencies so as to prevent undue fluctuations in their values. Instead he wanted rules devised for the control of the domestic money supply, budgetary policy, short-term economic policy and inflation.

He also wanted greater emphasis to be placed upon mutual support between countries, and the abolition of restraints upon the mobility of currency among them.

For non-snake countries regional, social, industrial and agricultural development should be promoted as an interim measure towards acceptance into snake, such aid to be subject to acceptance of the mutual responsibilities required in joining snake. Tindemans wanted C.A.P. carried on but its scope extended to encompass the regional and social implications of agricultural problems. He also wanted common policies undertaken on the use of, and conservation of, energy; the co-ordination, direction and more effective exploitation of research; and on social problems such as migrant workers, disabled persons, and the standardisation of wages, pensions, social security provisions and working conditions throughout the Community. He also advocated greater worker participation in the control of industry, and a substantial extension of the scope and scale of regional policy to help bring poorer regions of the Community up to par with those more prosperous.

Above all Tindemans considered that the Community should give its citizens tangible evidences of the fruits of belonging to the Community:-

> "The construction of Europe is more than a form of co-operation between states. It is a bringing together of peoples who seek to adapt their societies together to changing world conditions, with due respect for the values which are their common heritage. Europe must be close to the citizen".(1)

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1. L. Tindemans, Report on European Union to the European Council, 1976.

Europe, he argued, must demonstrate its efficacy to the citizens of its integral states by standing up for the rights of Europeans, by bringing about the abolition of frontier controls, by providing for easier transport and communications, by helping in the establishment of uniform telephone and postal rates throughout Europe, and by granting citizens the right of appeal to the European Court of Justice, and providing them with protection under a European scale of Consumer Rights, etc. He contended that a European Foundation - financed jointly by the Community and member states, should be established for the promotion of European solidarity and understanding through youth activities, exchanges, seminars, debates, etc.

Finally Tindemans recognised the need for some direct constitutional reforms. Parliament, he contended, should be directly elected (a reform since instituted in 1979) and its powers extended to include a "certain right of initiative" - the right to have its recommendations discussed by the Council, and to discuss all matters appertaining to the Union - including defence which is currently a sole prerogative of the Western European Union. Finally it should initiate a number of major debates - including one on the state of the union in which the President of the Council of Ministers and other national leaders would be invited to take part.

The European Council, according to Tindemans, should be empowered to select the main lines of Community policy on the grounds that it alone has an overall view of the problems concerned. The Heads of these national governments also have the collective authority, vested in them at national level, to promote the cause of European unity in the most effective manner possible. They should operate in their policy-making in accordance with Treaty Procedures, in the presence of the Commission. The Council of Ministers should delegate implementation

of their policies to specifically-named agents, and set a time limit for their completion. Their meetings should be prepared by the Council of Foreign Ministers.

The Council of Foreign Ministers should also be empowered to co-ordinate the activities of other specialist councils such as agriculture or finance. As already noted in discussion of political co-operation above, Tindemans favoured the abolition of the twin functions of foreign ministers as members of the Conference of Ministers and the Council of Ministers, so that no distinction need be maintained between the resolution of Community policies and the establishment of common policies between the member countries of the E.E.C., although, in his opinion, the machinery for the implementation of decisions should remain separate below the ministerial level. The Presidency of the Council of Ministers should be for a term of a year - instead of the present six months - to ensure greater continuity, but specialised tasks, such as discussions with the U.S.A., should be remitted to the commission, or a country, or one or several individuals.

The Commission should be upgraded to the status of the old E.C.S.C. High Authority. Its President should be appointed by the European Council, subject to ratification by the European Parliament. He should then appoint his colleagues, in consultation with the Council and in accordance with the national distribution of seats laid down under the treaties - two for each major state, one for each remaining state.

The powers of the European Court of Justice should be extended to cover new areas which come under Community direction, and in future individuals should be permitted to appeal against the actions of Community institutions.

Tindemans, in his final conclusions, emphasised that the Community must learn to act as one, since separately the individual nations of

Western Europe could no longer hope to influence events in the modern world. The European Community must lead on to European Union.

From a historical point of view, the Tindemans Report ranks with the Spaak Report of 1955 as a significant milestone in the development of Europe.

Progress towards economic integration has been rather more rapid than progress on the political plane, since many politicians who cherish national sovereignty and so have resisted any move they have suspected would bring about its erosion, have been quite content to accept the advantages to their countries of schemes towards economic co-operation and even limited economic integration. Not only this, but many functionalists see the greatest hope of achieving political union as lying in the development of economic institutions, which through their operation bring about gradual economic - and with it political- dependence, which must eventually bring the nations together.

Thus, as regards the provisions of the Rome Treaties, which sought to establish a customs union in which free trade would be established between all the members, a common agricultural, transport, and external trade policy maintained, and ultimately, mobility of labour, goods and capital throughout the Community - most of these objectives have been achieved, although mobility of labour and capital is still very imperfect. To go further, however, than to create the underlying climate for economic integration such as has already been achieved amongst the "Nine" - the accession of Greece being too recent - and to work towards total economic integration, requires strong political will on the part of all the member countries. This is because complete economic integration requires a considerable loss of political sovereignty, far beyond that limit to which many European politicians are, at present, prepared to go.

Since European Education can best be served in future by an advance towards total economic and political integration in Europe, which is at present a fairly remote prospect, it is particularly relevant to examine some recent proposals and developments in fields where progress has been least rapid. These are the promotion of capital mobility through the achievement of monetary union, and promotion of labour mobility through provisions for mutual recognition of academic and professional qualifications throughout the Community.

In the 60s the economic prosperity of the Community, supported by a strong dollar with sterling as the reserve currency, discouraged moves towards monetary union, since the existing provisions seemed to be adequate. In contrast, the 70s have seen a weakening of the dollar and sterling, and European exchange rates have fluctuated alarmingly, prompting a desire to pool reserves and so strengthen Community currencies in external relations.

The Heads of Government of the "Six", meeting in 1969, declared themselves in favour of complete Economic and Monetary Union (E.M.U.) by 1980. This would require national governments to surrender their rights of control over exchange rates and to establish independent monetary policies. The Community would operate a pool of foreign reserves, and would maintain a common exchange rate policy towards non-member countries, as well as a common stand in international monetary negotiations. Issues of money credit and interest rates would be dictated by a Community Central Bank, which would be the centre of a European Federal Reserve System. Monetary Union would require a common policy, or highly co-ordinated national policies, in fiscal and budgetary matters, the fields of regional and incomes policy, and in short and medium term economic planning. These proposals aroused much controversy and concern. The "Monetarists" regarded monetary union as

sufficient to bring about economic co-ordination whereas the "Economists" believed that economic policies and performances would have to be harmonised before monetary union would operate effectively. There was apprehension, too, on the part of weaker peripheral countries like Italy, the U.K. and Eire, that monetary union might cause higher unemployment and poorer economic growth prospects for them, while countries with stronger economies became apprehensive about the burden of supporting such weaker partners.

The Council of Ministers, however, agreed to E.M.U. by 1980, and the Werner Report of 1970 proposed the principle of "Parallelism" - a compromise between the "Monetarist" and "Economist" viewpoints.

Werner had originally been in favour of irrevocably fixed exchange rates, full convertability, transfers of main economic powers from national to federal government, and the creation of two main institutions - a decision making centre for economic policy, and a Community Central Bank System. Because of resistance from West Germany, which resented support of weaker currencies, and France, which was apprehensive over the supranational implications of E.M.U., Werner compromised in his report, by proposing that a transitional stage should be allowed, to last three years, allowing for a process of adjustment to take place between the economic and monetary components of the proposed union.

Under this scheme, a "Snake in the tunnel" procedure was set up, designed to narrow the margins of the day-to-day exchange rate fluctuations amongst the currencies of the member states by buying and selling U.S. dollars on the commercial exchange markets. The narrow band was to be known as the "snake" and the permissable range of fluctuations the "tunnel". Soon after, however, collapse of the international monetary system based on the dollar put paid to plans to

adopt the policy.

After the Smithsonian Monetary Agreement of 1971 by the leading members of the International Monetary Fund the Community again attempted to institute the three year transitional stage as recommended in the Werner Report the previous year. But although initially even the new joining members accepted this proposal - the U.K. withdrew in 1972, Italy in 1973 and France in 1976. Notwithstanding what appeared to be temporary setbacks, the Paris Summit of 1972 ratified E.M.U., and a European Monetary Fund was established intended eventually to provide the machinery for operating a Community exchange system. In the meantime it was to provide short-term credit facilities and take over the functions of the existing Committee of Central Banks. The U.K. also persuaded the Community to set up a Community Regional Fund.

Since 1973, however, none of the members of the Community has been able to adhere strictly to the "Snake in the tunnel" and so it has been Community policy simply to preserve the agreement in principle. Further progress towards E.M.U. was shelved the following year, although agreement was reached on the size and structure of the Community's first Regional Fund.

In April 1978 the Council of Ministers doubled the capital of the European Investment Bank for the financing of public and private investment. Despite this absence of concrete progress towards monetary union, several proposals for the future restructuring of E.M.U. have been put forward which may help to determine its future development.

Thus the Tindemans Report(1) advocated that:-

> ... in this period of economic reverse, when there is a mutual lack of confidence between the member states and when some nations are too weak economically to be integrated into the same currency structure as the economically-stronger nations, there should be agreement between all the Community members to approach the ...

> ... implementation of E.M.U. at different speeds - the stronger economies to proceed promptly to full integration, the weaker economies to be given time to "catch up" and in the meantime receive economic aid from the rest of the Community until they were ready for integration.(1)

Tindemans also recommended that, in addition to governing external monetary policy by providing a mechanism for mutual support of national currencies and restraint of the fluctuations in the exchange rates between them, the "Snake" should be extended to control internal monetary policy - including the control of money supply, budgetary control - determining the size and financing of deficits, and control of short-term economic policy and inflation.

Referring to the way in which weaker currencies should be supported, during the transitional period, he advocated that help should be organised on an ad hoc basis, and include regional, social, industrial and agricultural measures. This recommendation was echoed in the MacDougall Report of 1977, which advocated regional aid to poorer regions to bring them up to parity with the whole Community. To achieve this the Community Budget should be increased from 1% to 2 or 2½% approximately, so as to make possible large-scale transfer of funds across national boundaries to make economic contributions at the scale appropriate to need.

Tindemans advocated an extension and development of Community policies already operative. Thus, the Common Agricultural Policy should be conceived as having regional and social implications. There should also be a common energy policy, a common research policy, a common social policy, and a much more effective regional policy.

Roy Jenkins, addressing the European University Institute in Florence in 1977, during his term as President of the Commission,

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1. L. Tindemans, op.cit.

argued that E.M.U. was essential if existing Community policies were to be consolidated, and if the Community was to be secure in the face of future economic and monetary crises. He also argued that E.M.U. would be more effective than national manipulation of the exchange rates in face of adverse balance of payments, inflation or unemployment. In the short-term he advocated financial transfers, along the lines suggested in the MacDougall Report. In the long-term he advocated centralised monetary policy, establishment of a European Bank and a common European Currency.

So far these proposals are seen as too controversial or radical for early adoption, and practical discussions are confined to such proposals as restraint of the exchange rate fluctuations, strengthening of the European Monetary Co-operation Fund, making European currencies the basis of support intervention in place of the dollar, and making the e.u.a. the unit for settlement amongst the Central Banks.

As called for in the Rome Treaty, mobility of labour is also an essential element in the economic integration of Europe. It has to be achieved if labour is to be deflected from dying to expanding economic regions and sectors, and a number of measures need to be taken to make it practical for workers to move. So that such measures could be taken the Rome Treaty established the Social Fund. By 1971 it had become clear that the Social Fund was not working effectively, and so in that year new rules for its administration were laid down. Under Article 4 help was to be provided for particular groups of people adversely affected by Community policies - and this has since been extended to help for the disabled and for unemployed young people. Article 5 made provision for particular regions or groups of industries where there was financial hardship arising from Community policies, or where lack of funds prevented the implementation of Community policies.

If the member government agreed to finance such aid, the Social Fund would contribute 50% of the cost. Since 1977 up to 55% of the cost is contributed for help to particularly disadvantaged regions, to provide employment subsidies, or to establish Job Creation Schemes. The Social Fund is paid out of the Community Budget. The reforms to the Social Fund were necessitated as a result of Community enlargement and the budgetary inflation which was making it impossible for the national economies to cope with rising levels of relief needed to help all kinds of people in hardship. A European Centre for Vocational Training has also been set up, and there are plans to help ensure maintenance of income for workers undergoing re-training or seeking alternative employment, to help guard them from the social hardship which acts as an additional deterrent to workers contemplating making such a transition.

The Community, apart from its direct involvement in the administration of the European Schools, is also involved with all educational problems which have a bearing on the removal of obstacles to workers seeking new employment and a change of home in another Community country. There is also concern for reducing linguistic barriers between the countries of the Community, and the provision of facilities in each country for the education of the children of people from other Community countries.

Some progress has also been made towards facilitating professional mobility in certain specific instances, by negotiating for the mutual recognition of professional qualifications which often represent a life-time's investment on the part of the professional person concerned. For example, any qualified doctor of medicine who has undertaken studies of not less than six years duration can now set up a practice anywhere in the Community, and provided he has mastery of the appropriate

language, he may take up public practice. As yet the same principle cannot be applied to lawyers since, unlike the international contents of medicine, law differs from state to state. Although foreign lawyers may co-operate with locally-based lawyers in specific cases, or set up advisory services in any country, it is not practical for them to conduct cases in the other country. Because the functions performed by particular professions in one country may be performed by another profession in another country, it is being found more practical to liberalise a particular speciality or function, rather than a profession per se. For example, the auditing of the accounts of a firm or public body is the function of tax consultants in some countries, but of accountants or even lawyers in others.

In addition to displaying concern for labour mobility, and for the co-ordination of vocational training in particular under Articles 118 and 128, ... the Architects of the Rome Treaties were also aware that failure to resolve differences in educational objectives, standards and practices between countries might constitute a serious barrier to such mobility, and accordingly, in Article 57, they recommended that it ought to be within the power of the Council to "issue directives for the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications".(1) Accordingly, the Education Ministers of the "Nine" meeting in council on the 9th February, 1976, identified the following priority objectives towards the first step of co-ordinating educational arrangements throughout the Community. They noted the need, first, for closer relations between the various European Education Systems; secondly, for the compilation of up-to-date documentation and statistics relating to education; thirdly, for closer co-operation

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1. Sir Barnett Cocks, "The European Parliament, Structure, Procedure and Practice" Appendix A: Treaty establishing the European Economic Community, Article 57, H.M.S.O. (1973) p.176.

between institutions of Higher Education; fourthly, for improved possibilities for academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study; fifthly, for improvement in the mobility of teachers, students and research workers, in particular by the removal of administrative and social barriers to the free movement of such persons and by the improved teaching of foreign languages; and finally, for the achievement of equal opportunities for free access to all forms of education.

Subsequently the ministers made a resolution to implement these objectives through their action programme:

The Council of Europe has made considerable progress in overcoming the initial resistance on the part of member states to developing the principle of reciprocal access of students to university places throughout the Community. A Students' Handbook published by the Community has subsequently passed through two editions - 1979, 1981 - and indicates entry requirements, stressing the need for language competence and the fact that places are "subject to availability", for all the universities throughout the Community.

In practice however, the effects upon student mobility have only been minimal. It is very important to forwarn students of the obstacles to mobility which they must overcome if they are to study in another country, and that this handbook has done admirably. However, the effect is likely to deter rather than encourage many students, since it is not easy, in the prevailing economic climate, to get a place in higher education even in ones' own country, let alone brave the additional difficulties of seeking a place elsewhere. These obstacles to mobility, the efforts made to combat them and the success so far achieved, form part of the subject matter of Chapter 13.

Unfortunately, although the school-leaving examinations of the

member countries - the British G.C.E. 'O' Levels, Scottish 'O' Grades, First-half French Baccalauréat, and the German and Scandinavian Real Examen - are all roughly comparable in their purpose, they are not always acceptable in Europe outside their countries of origin. This problem applies equally to degrees and teaching qualifications.

Because national governments are most concerned to preserve and transmit their national cultures, they are reluctant, for that reason also, to employ foreign nationals in their schools. Usually the only foreign teachers commonly found in schools are the teachers of languages, and only then under short-term contract.

Jean Murat, in Chapter 5 of the Year Book of Education, 1964(1), which deals with this problem of equivalence of degrees and diplomas, having examined a variety of previous relevant studies and recommendations, and distinguished between different forms of harmonisation and equivalence in European and World education which might be aspired to, concluded that:-

> "... while harmonisation of studies is impractical and not necessarily advantageous, some form of equivalence - although not affording a universal panacea of the world's problems, is imperative".

He concluded that:-

> "... help ought to be made available to encourage a basic equivalence of educational matter, because this is fundamental and therefore more desirable than either some spurious harmonisation of the framework of education, or any other-preoccupation with external equivalence - that is, negotiating mutual recognition of one another's qualifications between countries, which, can only be achieved by disregarding the differences between them, some of which may have serious repercussions".

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1. Jean Murat, "The Problem of Equivalence of Degrees and Diplomas", Chapter 5 of The Year Book of Education, 1964. Education and International Life, edited by George Z.F. Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys, and jointly published by Columbia University, N.Y., and Evans Bros. (1964) p.343.

Since details of progress being made through formal education towards European unity are the subject of subsequent chapters, the subject is only summarily covered here just so far as it has a wider bearing upon the mobility of labour.

Compared with other lines of progress so far considered, that towards the cultural and social integration of Europe, and towards the promotion of European consciousness amongst her citizens, seems to have come in for least attention. Yet it is manifestations of this kind which could mean most to the man in the street, and from them he would most readily acquire the sense of belonging to a united Europe. Such apparently slow progress is all the more strange, since, according to Harrison, the functionalists seem to have insisted, right from the start, that European peoples could best be reached by undertaking Community policies designed to meet human needs such as housing, health and transport.

> "It is assumed that men are rational enough in the calculation of their own interest to respond positively to signals which bring some aspect of integration to their notice. Their attention must be shifted from national problems and national solutions ... functionalism offers the products of co-operation instead of continuously reconciling conflicting national interests".(1)

In some cases, the tangible evidences of growing together that have occurred have rapidly been recognised as for the most part beneficial. In others, however, they have been a source of irritation and even resentment from the start. In many cases such measures have been undertaken, not for the benefit of the public, but as part of larger economic strategies. Thus, whereas metrication of the British currency was soon recognised to be beneficial, metrication of weights and measures has proved a mixed blessing. Harmonisation of food

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1. R.J. Harrison, Europe in Question, G. Allen and Unwin, London 1974.

processing standards, or to standardise livestock and plant species on Community farms, have aroused resentment from producers and consumers alike. It seems regrettable that the integration process should arouse such adverse public responses, when for want of some imaginative projects the Community might win the public allegiance. Some small benefits, however, are beginning to accrue for that small, but growing minority who are already involved in dealings with other Europeans. Passport and customs procedures at national frontiers have undergone rationalisation. During the 80s a European Passport is gradually being introduced as existing passports come up for renewal, although, unfortunately, the contents will still vary from one country to another. Similarly, European Driving Licences are being introduced. There still remains a great deal yet to be done such as the rationalisation of postal services and telephones, and the development of standard rates throughout the Community. The provisions for nationals of one Community country receiving medical care while resident in another, and the harmonisation of banking and insurance services are necessary reforms for the future.

Radio and television in the U.K. has been slow to give coverage to European affairs so that listeners and viewers are able to acquire a fuller insight into the lives and attitudes of their European counterparts. This is certainly not true of the Netherlands, where foreign programmes in French, German and English occupy a substantial proportion of the national programme. This, however, is not an ideal situation, either, what is required, surely, is to develop 'common core' programmes which will appeal to all, offering a genuinely European programme in addition to the national ones. The development of Satellite Relay Stations may in future make all the European programmes available to people throughout the Community.

Until a Channel Tunnel or Bridge becomes a reality British and Irish citizens will in this way too remain disadvantaged in their efforts to adjust themselves to their European identity, through the discriminatory cost of overcoming their geographical isolation. Private transport, by virtue of its greater flexibility, is better suited to the task of making social contact a day-to-day reality. Accordingly, a road link would be preferable to a rail link.

Tindemans, in his 1976 report, observes that:-

> "This construction of Europe is more than a form of co-operation between states. It is the bringing together of peoples who seek to adapt their societies together to changing world conditions, with due respect for the values which are their common heritage. Europe must be close to the citizen".(1)

It seems to have been this last sphere, so recognised by the functionalists, which nevertheless has been the most neglected. The politicians have for the most part been preoccupied with the Europe of states. Formal Education must find its role in serving the "Europe of the citizen", since it, alone, is equipped to help the citizens and future citizens of Europe adapt themselves and their society to the challenges of the twenty-first century.

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1. L. Tindemans, op.cit.,

CHAPTER IV: THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION IN THE SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.

There have been several quite diverse formative influences which have helped shape the national educational systems we have today in the countries under consideration.

First, there have been internationally-renowned philosophical movements and associated educational experiments which have influenced the various European countries, and encouraged them to adopt similar approaches.

Secondly, there have been national exponents of these same philosophies who, because they have also come under the influence of distinctive national ideals and aspirations, and by events of national history, have been responsible for the distinctive features of the national educational systems.

Thirdly, and finally, there have been common socio-economic trends experienced in post-war Europe, in particular, which have guided European countries into recent reorganisations of their national educational systems.

Two of the most influential international movements to affect the European educational systems have been Humanism and the Enlightenment.

Humanism was a product of the Renaissance, the movement which led not only to a 'rebirth' of Classical learning, encouraging efforts to revive the best features of the ancient world, but also to a rejection of the "cramping narrowness of medievalism", and a "demand for a larger and fuller individual life".(1) Starting in Italy, when Petrarch first encouraged renewed interest in the Latin Classics during the Fourteenth Century, it spread to Northern Europe after about 1430.

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1. William Boyd and Edmund J. King, "The History of Western Education" (1975) p.159.

It received considerable impetus through the Dutch philosopher, Erasmus Desiderius (1469-1536), who, having acquired a strong detestation of the old unimaginative rote-learning methods for studying Latin then in vogue under the medieval scholastic system, advocated that language skills ought to be acquired "by daily intercourse with those accustomed to express themselves with exactness and refinement, and the copious reading of the best authors".(1) Erasmus advocated a very broad and liberal curriculum, in which, "after the foundations of a thorough knowledge of the languages (Greek and Latin) had been laid ... the classical literatures should be brought into relation to ordinary affairs by combining them with the study of mythology, agriculture, military science, geography, history, astronomy, natural history, and similar arts and sciences".(2)

Even in his lifetime Erasmus had considerable influence upon the setting up of a new genre of schools in Western Europe. Thus, in about 1509 he assisted Dean Colet of St.Paul's in the establishment of a reformed Grammar School in the shadow of the Cathedral, a school which became the model for many others. A few years later, he took an interest in the establishment of the Collegium Trilingue, in association with the University of Louvain.

This Humanist tradition is still very alive in European education, and perhaps no where so strongly as in France.

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1. Erasmus, "On the Right Method of Instruction", quoted by W.H. Woodward in "Erasmus Concerning Education", Cambridge, 1904, pp.163-164.

2. William Boyd and Edmund J. King, op.cit., p.176.

Here, "the two most important tasks of the school system" are seen as those of (a) integration ... meaning the maintenance of its moral and intellectual homegeneity of the whole nation ... and (b) the making of citizens, ... The whole is based on the desire to give to each and every child a culture générale".(1) This is seen most in French Secondary and higher education. Thus in the Cycle d'Orientation - which is designed to serve the needs of pupils from 13-15 years of age, the more academic pupils enter either a 'Classical Stream' - which involves Latin, Greek and an additional modern language, or a 'Scientific Stream'. At the age of fifteen, these students embark upon a "long course" at a lycée, preparing for a gruelling three year course culminating in the Baccalaureat Examination which, if they pass it, will qualify them for University entry. Courses offered include five academic combinations of subjects - and a further four options making some concession to modern demands for technical and scientific, managerial and commercial, and data processing studies.(2)

After yet another three year post-Baccalaureat studies at one of the most select lycées, the top thirteen percent of Baccalaureat holders may win a place in one of the Grandes Ecoles.(3) The grandes Ecoles between them prepare candidates for all the main subject areas and for the higher echelons of all the main professions. In 1974 some 98,500 students attended one of these prestigious establishments, whereas 713,000 attended university and a further 42,000 were at one of the new University Institutes of Technology (I.U.T.).

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1. Vernon Mallinson, "The Western European Idea in Education", (1980) pp.37-38.
2. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., pp.194-196.
3. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.197.

At university the first degree, or licence, is completed after three years of study, while a further year's study leads to a Masters' degree.(1) Although technical and scientific options have been grafted on to the secondary and tertiary level curricula alongside the traditional academic ones, still the rationale of the culture générale persists as the education appropriate for the young intelligensia of France.

To a lesser degree the same principle holds for the education of the more academic young people in the Netherlands and West Germany. Thus, in the Netherlands, pupils who undertake the V.W.O. Course, which extends over six years, study Latin, Greek, Dutch and another foreign language, mathematics and science.(2) At the end of this demanding course they are eligible for university entry on the basis of passing the V.W.O. School-leaving Certificate in seven subjects, including Dutch and one other foreign language.(3) For this select group, at least, the university courses they proceed to are particularly exacting, lasting between five to seven years, and with "an overall failure rate of about 30% at the end of the first year".(4)

In West Germany a number of the Länder still retain something very similar to the tripartite system of Secondary Education which once prevailed in the U.K., and their most academic young people attend the traditional Gymnasium,(5) a school comparable with the French Lycée, the Dutch V.W.O. and the English Grammar School.

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.328.
2. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.191.
3. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.191.
4. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.322.
5. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.200.

The Gymnasium offers a stringent nine year course, which culminates in a second secondary cycle, from fifteen to eighteen years, during which students work at a balanced curriculum, in which two subjects are concentrated upon and studied at depth - the Leistungfacher. At the end of this three year course students sit for the Abitur - in which they undertake examination of their two in-depth subjects plus two other subjects - chosen so that between them they include at least one subject from each of the following three groups - languages and art; mathematics and natural sciences; and history and social sciences.(1) This insistance upon the 'balanced' academic education to so high a level is very much in the Humanist tradition.

Whereas, however, the determination of the French authorities to adhere to the Culture Générale, while making concessions to meet the needs of the less academic majority, means that the Humanist tradition remains the dominant one, in the U.K., the Netherlands and West Germany, similar traditions are no longer as important as they were.

The approved curriculum adhered to by the European schools and the European Baccalaureat for which they prepare their students, are both twentieth century expressions of the Humanist philosophy.(2)

The other influential philosophy which has left its mark upon European education has been the Enlightenment. It originated in the Eighteenth Century and had its early exponents in Britain, France and Germany. The Enlightenment claimed an authority based upon "good sense and reason", and it had an influence upon scientific enquiry as well as education. In science it found expression in the inductive method of enquiry and this Baconian scientific approach was central both to that of Comenius in Moravia, Germany, but also such educational philosophers

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1. Helmut Göbel (Editor) "The School Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany", Inter Nationes BW17/75, p.250.

2. Full details of these are to be found in Chapter 12 subsequently.

as Hartlib, Woodward and Locke in England.

Comenius' conviction that education, alone, could provide the key for men everywhere to acquire wisdom, and be led towards a knowledge of God and a state of universal brotherhood, was based upon the assumption that knowledge can bring reason, and that because wisdom and virtue are reasonable, they can also be arrived at through the acquisition of knowledge. Towards the achievement therefore of his greater universalist ideal Comenius propounded a detailed and ambitious scheme for education. In contrast, the British philosophers were primarily concerned with the contents of education itself.

Hartlib, for instance, in his tractate "London's Charity Enlarged" (1650) which was submitted to Parliament, proposed that the State ought to subsidise the education of poor children for the betterment of society as a whole. His friend John Walton the Poet, in a tract dated 1644, advocated inclusion of useful subjects such as Mathematics, Medicine and Modern Languages in the curriculum of schools. Yet another friend, in his "Advice of William Petty to Mr. Samuel Hartlib for some particular parts of learning", (1647-1648), made a special plea that education ought to be practical and vocational in character.

Hezekiah Woodward proposed a system of classroom practice close to that advocated by Comenius - based on the assumption that "the beginnings of wisdom must come through the objects around" the child.

John Locke advocated what Boyd and King describe as at once a "broad and a narrow curriculum",(1) to include reading, writing, drawing, English and French, followed in addition by Latin; Geography; leading on to arithmetic, astronomy and geometry, culminating in history; ethics and Law; the art of speaking and writing English; dancing, fencing and riding; manual occupations such as gardening and woodwork; and bookkeeping.

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1. William Boyd and Edmund J. King, op.cit., p.277.

Its "broadness" lay in including such a wide range of attainments, its "narrowness" in its neglect of cultural and aesthetic studies. Such Utilitarianism, however, may be interpreted as a reaction against the insistance of academics of the Humanist persuasion upon "learning for its own sake", or for the "training of the faculties".

The Enlightenment influence is to be seen at work in the Educational Systems of Europe today in the attempts to include new "useful" subjects in the curriculum of the comprehensive schools which are fairly general in the United Kingdom, gaining ground in West Germany, but have been confronted by strong resistance in France. It is also reflected in the arguments of those who have sought to promote the Comprehensivisation of European Secondary Schools, on grounds similar to those argued by Samuel Hartlib in his "London's Charity Enlarged" already referred to, - that society would be improved if the less privileged children had equal educational opportunities with their more fortunate compatriots.

The Enlightenment influence is also reflected in attempts to establish Trade or Vocational education for academically less-able students, very much after the lines advocated by William Petty, Hartlib's friend - thus in Britain the present government, under Sir Keith Joseph, Secretary of State for Education, is promoting schemes for young people under the Manpower Commission which will give greater stress to vocational training, and is reducing the availability of academic education. In the Netherlands there is already a comprehensive system of vocational education, operated by the L.T.O., M.T.O., and H.T.O. In France, despite determination to preserve the "culture générale", the Lycée d'enseignement professional (L.E.P.) has been introduced, and in West Germany the Berufschule and the apprenticeship training scheme serve the same purpose.

Fuller details of these two main lines of historical precedents which have been found expression in the national educational systems of today can be found in Boyd and King.(1)

Distinctive features of the national education systems have grown up in response to the divergent national ideals and different historical influences which have been felt in the respective countries. For example, according to Sir Malcolm Sadler, as quoted by Higginson, "The German is apt to ask about a young man, 'what does he know?' ... The Frenchman to ask - 'what examinations has he passed?' while the Englishman's usual question is - 'what sort of fellow is he?'"(2)

Some earlier formative influences distinctive to the countries under consideration are appropriately considered here.

As already observed, Dean Colet's St. Paul's School, in London, which, inspired by Humanist ideas as expounded by Erasmus, taught a curriculum dominated by Latin and Greek, became the model for the reformed Grammar School. Subsequently, distinctive religious influences in Scotland and Ireland have led to quite different educational developments in these countries compared to those in England and Wales, which are considered here.

In the late seventeenth century the Enlightenment philosophers like Francis Bacon (1561-1626) stressed the value of scientific enquiry - arguing that more time should be given over at schools and universities to experimental work and investigation of nature by the inductive method, since only by the acquisition of such knowledge could man achieve domination over nature. The Lockian philosophy advocated the study of

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1. William Boyd and Edmund J. King, "The History of Western Education", Adam and Charles Black (11th edition 1975).

2. J.H. Higginson, "An English Scholar's Studies of Education in Europe" The International Review of Education 1, II, pp.197-198.

useful subjects, learned by empirical means, and stressed the value of liberal attitudes and democratic management of human affairs. However much these ideals were common currency amongst eighteenth century intellectuals, it is questionable whether any moves would have been made to widen the school curriculum to take account of the natural sciences, or to extend access to the Grammar Schools to the middle classes, had it not been for the social upheavals which were associated with Britain's Industrial Revolution, the first in the world. This Industrial Revolution created a new urban middle class which, as it gained in power and influence, sought education as a means of extending that power. It also made it necessary that members of the working class should be equipped with an elementary education, sufficiently practical to serve the labour needs of industry. In the twentieth century that same working class has been seeking social advancement through education, and more sophisticated modern industry has been seeking the services of a better educated work force. In response to economic and social pressures of this kind, governments in mid-Victorian times created new kinds of schools, and slowly assumed financial responsibility, not only for these, but for some already established - the so-called Direct Grant Aided Grammar Schools - for the new middle class, and the elementary schools for the children of the working classes.

Under Butler's Education Act of 1944, a compromise was sought by which - on the one hand, the Grammar School, seen by many as representing privilege and social injustice, might be retained, and on the other hand, in the name of equal opportunity, provisions for secondary education for all might be established. Under the Tripartite System of education established in order to implement the Act in subsequent years, the Grammar School was indeed retained for the academically more able, the secondary Technical School was created for the less-able academic student

who might have a technical or scientific bent, and the secondary Modern School was provided for the non-academic majority, who, it was anticipated, would continue to supply the market for a semi-skilled and unskilled workforce as before. The new Secondary School System was not intended to encroach upon the parallel public and private school systems which had existed from the past. Subsequently, socialist resentment against secondary school selection, and subsequent segregation of pupils on the basis of attainment, both deemed by them as discriminatory towards a working class majority and therefore unacceptable in a modern democratic society, inspired policies for the comprehensivisation of the entire secondary education system,(1) and for the abolition or integration of public and private schools,(2) policies since implemented in some, though by no means all local education authorities.

In Dutch education the main influence from the past has been Humanism which, under pressure of changing economic and social needs in the industrial era, has led to the retention of a stratified system under which the more academically-competent student receives a traditional classical education, or else a highly-academic scientific one through the V.W.O. and leading on to a university career, from which all but a privileged minority are excluded. Meanwhile, in modern times the Netherlands; as a small, highly developed country, densely populated, and with very limited natural resources which leaves it heavily dependent upon international trade and high-technical industry; has felt

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1. Circular 10/65, 'The Organisation of Secondary Education, D.E.S., 12 July 76/65.

2. First Report of the Public Schools Commission, Vols. I, II. The Newsom Report, D.E.S., 1968. and
Second Report of the Public Schools Commission, Vol. I, The Donnison Report, D.E.S. 1970.

pressure to keep ahead of its competitors by providing an effective system of technical and vocational education for the majority of its young people - upon which the future of its national economy is likely to depend.(1) Any attempts to democratise education in the Netherlands have to be tempered by the conflicting pressures - those from a professional class which sees the Humanist tradition in education as imparting status through education, and from a national majority who see a useful vocational education as of value to themselves and in line with economic needs of the nation.

What appears to be lacking in the existing educational system is adequate provisions for citizens to exercise what ought to be a democratic right for horizontal transfer between the corresponding academic and vocational/technical strata at secondary and tertiary levels. These are needed if the system is to meet the aspirations of scholars or students who feel the need, on the grounds of personal fulfilment or socio-economic advancement, to re-orient their lives. What is required is something comparable to the German "second Educational way" by which the young adult who was not given a V.W.O. education, but instead engaged in technical or vocational training, can earn the right to enter higher education.

In the various Länder which make up the Federal Republic of West Germany, Humanism has remained the dominant influence behind the Gymnasium-type of secondary school, ever since the Lutheran break-away which established Protestantism as the official religion of many German States, with such Protestant educational reformers as Melanchthon and Sturm in the early sixteenth century. The Humanist movement was also the main source of inspiration behind Jesuit Schools set up during the Counter-Reformation in the early seventeenth century.

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.192.

In the early eighteenth century Comenius, the Moravian Brethren leader, anticipated something of the Enlightenment with his advocacy of scientific enquiry as a means of learning about God and achieving the ideal of universal peace and brotherhood. Until this era educational thought and practice in the German States reflected that of other Western European States.

However, Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), even though inspired by the Enlightenment, rejected the idea that reason was the basis of human knowledge and achievement, which was central to this philosophy, and gave it its distinctive German emphasis, arguing that knowledge is acquired not through reason or empirical discovery, but through instinct, sentiment and sensual impression. He laid stress upon the child acquiring the will to act rightly as a result of education, as Mallinson has expressed it:-

> "The most valuable thing we can give a pupil is not knowledge; but through self-discipline a salutary way of acquiring knowledge and an independent way of action".(1)

Further developed through Hegel, Schopenhauer and Nietzche, this philosophical school led to the worst kind of German nationalism under the Nazi regime, when German education was required to hold up the ideals of might as right, and total dedication and unquestioning obedience to the Fatherland, in its bid to dominate Europe, before a generation of young Germans.

Post-war German educational policies have displayed a violent revulsion to these features, and have sought inspiration in the kind of liberalism displayed during the short-lived Weimar Republic which ruled Germany between 1919-1933, emulating traditional values. This nostalgia is expressed forcibly in the Lower Saxony Education Act of 1954 which argues that:-

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.31.

> "Schools have the duty (to uphold) the tradition of Christianity; the cultural heritage of the Western World, and (to prepare students for their role as) citizens of a democratic; social and constitutionally-governed state".(1)

With these avowed purposes, the Federal Government has done all within its power to influence the progress of liberalising reforms through the Länder, despite its own constitutional weakness in dictating matters relating to their domestic affairs. Consequently progress towards democratisation of the various state education systems has been slow and uneven.

In contrast to that of Germany where there has been a break with the immediate past, the French education system displays a strong line of historical continuity. Of the three main influences at work, that of Humanism, far the oldest, seems also to have been the most tenacious and effective. Through such great French exponents as Ramus and Montaigne, the French Humanist Movement became embodied in the very characteristic concept of "Culture générale". To ensure the effective transmission of culture générale, a very exacting academic education is deemed necessary, intended to endow the student with wisdom and the capacity to think and express himself rationally. So high has been their regard for it, that the French authorities have resisted strong pressures to democratise education, and to abandon the high academic standards maintained in the upper streams of the lycées or the Grandes écoles, which are didicated to the task of educating the crême de la crême of French society.

Descartes, forerunner of the Enlightenment, was a Frenchman, while later the movement in France owed much to Voltaire (1694-1778) and the educational work of Diderot and the other Encyclopaedists. Rousseau, too, was a product of the Enlightenment, an educational philosopher who rebelled against the movement by rejecting reason as the supreme

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.201.

authority in favour of appealing to the innate goodness and wisdom of man. Educational philosophy blossomed in eighteenth century France where, in addition to the philosophers already recounted, Condillac and Helvetius contributed to educational theory, while men of action like la Chalotais Rolland and Condorcet made detailed proposals for state education.

It might have been supposed that the French Revolution, having swept away the repressive French monarchy in 1791, might go on to usher in a new democratic liberal educational system for the citizenry of France. But in point of fact, the Counter-Revolutionary Regime of Napoleon Bonaparte set out to establish an educational system subject to, and supportive of, his military dynasty. To this end a "University of France" was organised on military lines, and although licences were also granted to the Catholic brethren of Christian Schools of St. John the Baptist de la Salle - a body operating elementary schools for thirty six thousand pupils with nine hundred and twenty teaching brothers in 1789 - no interest was shown in extending the scope of elementary education in France.

To Napoleon another major feature of French education today - that of direct control by central government - may be attributed. Under the system he established in 1808, the University of Education delegates its authority directly to twenty six academies, but these are under a Recteur with absolute powers who has been nominated by the President of the Republic and is directly answerable for his actions to the Minister himself. Only since 1973 has some measure of decentralisation been permitted. Nothing significant was done to establish a state system of elementary education until after the Restoration, indeed, only in 1833: when the authorities had been made aware of the ignorance of the nation.

The Counter-Reformation Movement in France led to the almost total

eclipse of Protestantism. Whereas many of the French Clergy were repressive and reactionary in outlook, Protestant philosophers in both Germany and England, men like Comenius and Bacon, not to mention some of the Puritan educational philosophers during the English Commonwealth era, advocated study of science through the use of empirical methods of enquiry, as being conducive to the religion, and the achievement of world peace and brotherhood. As a result the Enlightenment displayed a more anti-clerical outlook, so much so, that the Jesuits were actually expelled from France in 1764. The Revolutionary Authorities after 1789 declared the State to be atheist.

When Napoleon established the Empire, he set up the highly-centralised governmental machinery, vested with control of the entire French education system, which has survived into modern times. This highly-centralised government administration has been locked in a titanic struggle with the Catholic education authorities, regarding what represents an acceptable contribution for religion to make to the education of the French people, from that day to this. Since 1945 the laity and clergy, through the Neo-Catholic movement, have been able to ensure that denominational schools have been maintained, and provided the education of 43% of French children. On the other hand, the Gaullist Education Settlement of 1960 has demonstrated the State's constant resolve to retain ultimate control over education, by reiterating the right to pay all teachers' salaries, and by insisting that the State should retain ultimate control over the curricula and school-leaving examinations in all French schools, including those in the private denominational sector.

It remains to consider the common post-war trends which have been displayed within most of the national educational systems of Europe, and which have tended to minimise the national differences.

Important amongst these have been the developments tending towards European economic, and ultimately political, integration, which represent the major pre-occupation of this study, subsequently.

However, in addition there have been a number of other common developments, including those brought about by the growing aspirations of women in particular, and among working people in general, but also those arising from the accelerated rate of scientific and technological changes all of which have invited growing government involvement and intervention in education.

The changes which have occurred in most West European countries have included the following:-

First there has been considerable expansion of nursery and pre-primary facilities in response to a growing number of career mothers, for whom the Women's Liberation Movement has helped provide a spear-head to their demands.

Secondly, there have been moves to develop curriculum and research into more effective methods to ensure good basic education, and a tendency to prolong primary education so as to delay secondary selection, on the grounds that specialised or vocational studies are best deferred to a latter stage of development.

Thirdly, the acceptance of the principle of secondary education for all has had its corollary in moves towards various kinds of comprehensive education. Moves have been made in all countries towards extending the length of the secondary school curriculum devoted to general education, and to lengthen the secondary stage by raising the school-leaving age.

Fourthly, in response to accelerating scientific and technological change there has been need for curriculum change at secondary level, to meet the needs of those who wish to enter industry and commerce. It has also been necessary to make provision for vocational rather than academic

courses in universities, and to create new alternative institutions, specifically designed to provide greater scope for scientific and technical education and better research amenities to meet the needs of industry and commerce. Also some first steps have been taken towards providing in-service, development, and retraining facilities for people of all ages who feel the need of them at any stage in their lives.

Finally, there has been an explosion in demand for university-type education from a wider sector of the population, many of whom are of a lower academic calibre than would traditionally have aspired to a university education. Governments have been called upon to provide unprecedented numbers of university places, and the universities and other new higher education institutions set-up to meet this increase demand have found it necessary to modify their curricula and teaching approaches to meet the changing needs and aspirations of their students and the sectors of society from which they have originated.

This popular expansion of higher education has only been made possible by increased government financial supports, and governments have only been willing to assume these growing liabilities on condition that they can exercise greater control over academic and financial policies, so as to ensure that the growing public expenditure on their part is matched by a greater responsiveness on the part of higher education, to changing social needs and the government policies designed to meet them.

At the same time that governments have been demanding that higher education should be more accountable to them, so too students have been demanding greater participation in university policy-making and greater relevance in their studies. Universities have therefore felt under threat from both quarters with regard both to their academic freedom and overall autonomy and students have felt that their rights to attend

university if eligible, and to choose the courses most suitable to them, were under threat.

Particularly on the Continent of Europe university courses have in the past tended to be inordinately long, and students seem to have had greatest cause to complain about the relevance of their studies. Efforts have therefore been made to shorten courses and lower failure rates in order to make the greater cost effectiveness, and also to provide the means for greater student consultation in matters relating to the contents of courses, or the formulation of policies which affect them.

Full details of the factors influencing the national educational systems, and their distinctive characters, are to be found in a whole range of works on comparative education, such as Mallinson's "The Western European Idea in Education", "The Education Systems in the European Community", a guide by Lionel Elvin, and in various national publications such as "Organisation and Structure of Education in the Netherlands", published by the Central Documentation Department of the University of Education and Science in 1974", "The School Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany", published by Inter Nationes in 1975, and "Education in France", published by the Cultural Department of the French Embassy in London, 1979.

It remains to consider how such different national education systems are likely to help promote or impede progress towards European unity.

To begin with, the fact that so far the European Parliament does not possess the authority to require member countries of the Community to implement Community policies, makes it beholden upon Ministers of Education who, themselves, are persuaded of the validity of decisions they have arrived at in the Community's Council of Ministers, to bring their powers of persuasion to bear upon the national education

authorities over which their jurisdiction extends. Success, however, will depend upon whether there is a chain for the delegation of authority from them down to the local levels of education in their particular country, or not.

Thus in France, and in the Netherlands, two of the countries with which this study is particularly concerned, an enthused Minister might have considerable influence in determining the contents of school curricula and of the subject syllabuses taught in all schools. The Central Government in both these countries also has considerable authority in dictating the contents of school-leaving and teacher training certificates. In contrast to these authoritatian structures, the Education Committees in each of the West German Länder, and the local Education Authorities in England and Wales, each wield a considerable authority independently of Central Government, and even then far more discretional powers are retained by individual schools and teachers. While it is true that the Examination Boards in Britain dictate much of the work undertaken in preparation for 'O' and 'A' level G.C.E. and C.S.E. Examinations, even so, these boards are made up from school and university staff whose priorities are therefore representative of educationalists, and not dictated by government ministers. In any case, individual teachers retain considerable discretion in how they prepare candidates, even for Mode I Examinations, while, Mode III Examinations, prepared by individual schools, are available to schools which reserve the right to determine their own syllabuses.

The Department of Education and Science in the United Kingdom does sometimes publish its own reports - with recommendations and guidance for teachers on a particular topic or study area, and it may also wield considerable influence through the advisory powers vested in H.M.

Inspectors. Still, the onus on them is to advise, not coerce, the educationalists, and it is this academic freedom that enables British teachers to be, at one time, very resistant to fads and fashions and yet highly innovative; co-operating together to build up teaching resources, e.g. to help in the teaching of European Studies, as recounted subsequently. It may, however, be said that British teachers are more likely to be responsive to social changes and influences - such as those that inspired the setting-up of the E.A.T. - European Association of Teachers - than they are to declared government policies per se, which may in some instances, be rejected by teachers.

It is interesting to note that Dutch teachers do not regard the government's restrictions upon curriculum and timetable allocations, or Rykscholenleerplan, as imposing a restriction upon their ability to teach as they feel it necessary.(1) Probably this reflects the fact, brought out by Vernon Mallinson, that the government authorities are concerned only with maintaining "uniformity of standards" and that, provided these standards are maintained, each one of the "three main pillars of Dutch Society", the Catholic Church, the Dutch Reformed - Lutheran - Church, and the 'Neutrals', or independent faction, retains the right to impart its own distinctive brand of education.(2)

To a greater or lesser degree, then - because the European Parliament lacks legislative powers, the effect which E.E.C. policies for education are likely to have on education practice in each member country is likely to vary with the degree to which educational control is centralised, or decentralised. In so far, however, as it remains the prerogative of the teachers themselves to determine the contents of, or at least the interpretation given to, the syllabuses they

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1. Pim Van Elsdingen and Comelis Van de Bergh, in interviews dated June 1981.

2. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., pp.106-107.

teach. from, it becomes the responsibility of the information sections of the E.E.C. the Council of Europe, the O.E.C.D., and the various national regional and local organisations dedicated to the task of disseminating information upon Europe and its progress towards integration, to reach the teachers, and the students and pupils they teach. Their work is examined in the subsequent Chapter eleven.

These two entirely different approaches to the problem of promoting European unity - by declared policies for educational reform or innovation, or through the exertion of indirect influence upon the thinking or professional work of teachers, while they may be effective to the greater or lesser degree in different countries, must be used to complement one another. On reflection, what appears to be a problem caused by endeavouring to bring about the integration of countries which have undergone, independently of one another, quite a different historical development; and which, in response to different geographical and economic conditions and cultural traditions, have developed quite diverse educational systems, is only an extension of the kind of problem which may confront any particular multi-group democratic society anyway, however well established and integrated it may be. We are therefore already familiar with the same problem, that of seeking the most effective way in which the government of a democratic and diversified society would seek to implement reforms in that society without arousing resistance to those reforms. This may occur in any of the Western European countries, or in any great Western Democracy like the United States of America, for that matter.

During the last generation the government of the United Kingdom has had several such matters of policy to resolve - for example, whether such desirable objectives as sexual, racial and industrial harmony in society would be best achieved by passing appropriate leglislation, or

whether such things can only be achieved by means of effective educational programmes. There have been those who saw Laws like the legislation to restrict the powers of Trades Unions as providing the complete solution to these problems. There have also been people who have argued that the only way to achieve such objectives is to educate all people to accept their desirability, and to work towards them.

In point of fact, however, the evidence of recent years has suggested that the only real and lasting solutions to such social problems as sexual injustices, racial hatred or industrial unrest lies somewhere between these two extreme positions. Although it has been proved that laws which lack the wholehearted support and respect of the public cannot work effectively, and therefore only serve to bring the Institutions of Law into disrepute - it is also a thing which can be demonstrated that legal enactments can help strengthen a weak public resolve and after fair trial, the law which was at first resented can become respected, because with aftersight it has proved its moral worth. The Sex Discrimination Act and Race Relations Act, but also legislation to enforce seat-belts and restrict drinking amongst motorists, have only won public acceptance since their introduction. The Trades Union legislation, but also the abolition of Capital Punishment, are areas in which the cases are not yet proven, and therefore the controversies in these areas continue.

Such acceptance by the public of a new law depends upon education through all the media and through Formal Education, to reinforce it.

Such methods of shaping public opinion, used in isolation would be wholly ineffective, because people do not take any ideal seriously until they have had some demonstration of its validity. This is why new legislation can gain acceptance, after encountering initial opposition, when it has been shown to work.

The best solutions in all such contexts seems to favour a gradualist rather than an instantaneous authoritarian approach. People need simultaneously, to be edged towards trying the new unfamiliar practice, and persuaded to believe in what they are doing. Provided a reform is practical, desirable and in accord with the moves of the society concerned, useage and familiarity will eventually bring about its full acceptance even without the need to seek legal reinforcement, except in the minimum of cases. This argument is close to the functionalist one which prevailed over that of the federalists in early post-war Europe.

In conclusion, there is probably a substantial case for strengthening the legislation powers of the European Parliament, so as to achieve the harmonisation of Europe's educational systems, and its academic and professional qualifications, though, not their standardisation. There is also a case for the passing of laws conducive to the improvement of language skills, knowledge of Europe, academic but also wider labour mobility, greater economic and cultural interchange, and the growth of continuous education throughout Europe. But at no point must that legislation be obstructive or coercive, since that would prove counter productive. Simultaneously with passing laws conducive to the desired integration of Europe, must come the spreading of knowledge and ideas to shape the thinking and convictions of Europeans through the media and through formal education, as well as through travel and contact with our fellow Europeans. Only then can Europe be guided towards unity "in spirit" as well as "in truth".

CHAPTER V. THE GROWTH OF EUROPEAN INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS RELEVANT TO EDUCATION, AND AN ASSESSMENT OF THEIR RELATIVE CONTRIBUTIONS TO EUROPEAN UNITY, DURING THE PRESENT CENTURY.

According to Michael Knight and Robert Leach, contributors to the Year Book of Education 1964 on the subject of international schools -

> "... No school antedating the First World War was founded with specific purpose of serving the cause of international education. Only two such schools were established between the wars. The reason given is that the League of Nations considered education 'Political' and therefore kept away from it".(1)

The first such school was the International School of Geneva set up in 1924 by officials of the League of Nations working in collaboration with the Institut Rousseau of the University of Geneva.(2) It is still in operation, and takes the form of a private school owned and managed by a joint stock company, but maintained by the Canton of Geneva. It contains a large English-speaking secondary section comprising seven forms, which prepares students for G.C.E. 'A' Levels, Advanced Placement College Board, or the International School Association's advanced examinations, and a smaller French-speaking section working towards the Swiss Federal Maturité Examination and the French Baccalauréat, made up of six forms.

Criticisms have been levelled at the school on the grounds that its work is marred by the linguistic frontier that runs through the establishment. Nevertheless, efforts have been made to draw the two sections closer together - most significant of which is the joint endeavour of the annual Student's United Nations General Assembly which has been convened every year since 1954.

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1. Michael Knight and Robert Leach, "International Secondary Schools" Year Book of Education, 1964, Evans Bros (1964) Section V, Chapter 2, P.443.

2. Michael Knight and Robert Leach, ibid, p.448.

The fact that so little was done between the wars to further internationalism through schools, should not be allowed to obscure the fact that the seeds of accelerating post-war activity were being sown throughout that earlier period. For example, the post-war period has seen a massive growth in organisation for the promotion of student visits and exchanges, but certainly one of the pioneers in this field was the British Council, established as far back as 1934.

As regards the growing awareness of the need for text-book revision, this appears to have found expression in several independent responses in various parts of Europe. As early as 1914, for instance, the Centre Pedagogique d'Histoire Actuelle Internationale, or Pedagogisch Centrum van Actuele Internationale Geschiedents in Antwerp had been seeking to encourage an unbiased view of European history. Since 1928 a Committee of historians called 'Forening Norden' has been examining the proposed textbooks by Danish, Finnish, Icelandic, Norwegian and Swedish authors, who voluntarily submit their work, and accept recommendations for improving the authenticity of it. Also in the 1920s, Georg Eckert, a German teacher and writer, and Georges Lapierre, a French schoolmaster, were both concerned with the need of such revision.

Georg Eckert had been engaged in the production of an International textbook review in Germany as early as 1933. In 1949, having survived the war, he resumed publication of the international textbook review he had been obliged to discontinue throughout the era of Nazi domination. In 1951 he was instrumental in the setting up of the Institute of International Textbook Revision in a teachers training college in Braunschweig, which two years later, was taken over by the Ministry of Culture for Lower Saxony, and of which he continued as director.

In 1965 the C.C.C. adopted a resolution calling for the creation,

in all countries, of national information and documentation centres for the improvement of history and geography text-books, and expressed the belief that these centres would require co-ordination, and that "the Braunschweig Institute which had had long experience and is unanimously appreciated, is particularly well placed to act as the co-ordinating body".

In June 1975 the Institute of International Textbook Revision, which had by now far outgrown its original mandate and acquired an international reputation, was reconstituted as the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research - and it now receives the sponsorship, not only of Lower Saxony, but of Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Hesse, Nordrhein-Westfalen, and the Rhineland Palatinate, and is regarded as the text-book centre for the Council of Europe. Much of its present work is conducted under the sponsorship of the E.E.C., the Council of Europe or of U.N.E.S.C.O., making it yet another example of an international institution - working to improve the accuracy and European-orientation of school text-books in the countries which come under its influence.

It is extremely difficult to assess the very diffuse influence of this organisation, by which it has helped shape the character of the text-books found in European schools and through which it has been able to influence, not only students and their teachers in the schools, but also young Europeans already at work. This is so because it has collaborated with so many other international organisations, and through these has been able to influence European publishers and text-book authors, making them more concerned for truthful and unprejudiced writing. The global contribution of this organisation is therefore quite incomparable, and accordingly forms the bulk of subsequent Chapter 11.

The contents of school history text-books are derived, initially, from primary sources as interpreted after a certain period of time has elapsed by the academic historians. Any attempt to establish a united Europe which fails to take account of the traditional animosities, stereotypes and prejudices that abound and which feed the divisive influences at work between European peoples, is doomed to some degree of frustration. It is surprising to note, that, in recognition of this, French and German historians - eager to undo Franco-German hatred and rivalry by reviewing the relations between both countries since 1789, actually set about this task in Paris during 1935. At that time, however, these early efforts were doomed to failure, because the German historians were under constraint from their government not to make any kind of concessions on certain points, and so very little constructive agreement could be reached.

When Lapierre was dying in Dachau Prison Camp he delegated a colleague there to pass on his last appeal to a French teachers' union in Paris after the war, an appeal which at last paved the way for the French teachers to co-operate with their German colleagues in undertaking the writing of new history books offering an objective view of relations between their two countries. As a result they were able to find substantial basis for agreements, not only on the problems arising from review of the period 1789 to 1939, but the entire history of relations between France and Germany. It is from deliberations of this sort that subsequent generations of text-book authors, and through them European school children, have been able to escape long-lived misapprehensions and prejudices about fellow Europeans, and hopefully avert future conflict and come nearer to a state of European consciousness.

Finally, as regards the development of agencies working to promote

an internationalist spirit amongst European teachers and ultimately amongst their pupils, pride of place must surely go to the National Education Association of the United States, which by sponsoring an international meeting of teachers in San Francisco, was instrumental in the setting up of the World Federation of Education Associations as early as 1923. This same organisation continued to meet biennially throughout the remainder of the inter-war period - Edinburgh 1925, Toronto 1927, Geneva 1929, Denver 1931, Dublin 1933, Oxford 1935, and Tokyo in 1937. Having survived the Second World War the World Federation was finally superceded by the World Organisation of the Teaching Profession, which was to carry the work of its predecessor into the post-war era. The same cause is now more specifically served in Europe by the European Association of Teachers.

So far it has been demonstrated that the international educational institutions of the period between the two wars were too few, small and unco-ordinated for even their collective influence to avert the coming conflict in Europe.

In the post-war period, however, many more such organisations have emerged in Europe. Because Europeans have again experienced the horrifying consequences of national hatred and rivalry at first hand, they have provided a more receptive climate for the work of international institutions, and this has contributed to the accelerated progress of European integration since 1945.

Probably the most powerful and influential of these international organisations which have emerged in the post-war period has been the European Economic Community (E.E.C.). Its origins and development have already been recounted in Chapter three of this study.

Throughout the period of its existence its main aims have been the economic and ultimately the political integration of Europe.

Nevertheless, in so far as the Community has also identified a role for education in the achievement of these aims it has become involved in educational work, despite the fact that such an involvement was not stipulated in the terms of the Rome Treaties. Any assessment of the contribution made by the Community through education is best considered in two main areas. First, the early part of this chapter will be devoted to consideration of the investigative findings and recommendations which the E.E.C. has put forward for study and implementation by the national education authorities of its member countries. Secondly, the direct contributions made by the Community through its own educational institutions - such as the European Baccalauréat Examination, the European Schools and the European University Institute in Florence, will form part of the subject matter of Chapter Twelve, where they will be examined within the wider context of international schools and colleges, and the contribution which these are making to the European cause.

It is the Commission of the European Economic Community which is the effective initiator of its policies. An idea may initially be put forward by that Commissioner who heads the directorate concerned with that particular policy area - which in the case of educational matters would be DG V, the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education.

A directorate is made up of civil servants responsible for providing their commissioner with back-up research, instigating enquiries on his behalf, devising experimental pilot schemes for the testing of possible solutions to specific problems, and drafting out detailed proposals based upon his original suggestions.

These draft proposals then go before the European Commission for discussion, after which, subject to the approval of the European

Parliament which the Commissioners are required to consult, they are ready for submission to the Council of Ministers. This body, is at any time made up of the government ministers whose area of responsibility is appropriate to the subject currently under deliberation. Thus, for example, an educational policy would require the Council to be made up of the various Ministers of Education.

They, in turn, when their deliberations are completed, and when hopefully they have been able to arrive at an unanimous agreement in the matter, publish a "resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education working within the Council", which is then passed on to the various national educational authorities, hopefully for early implementation by them. It is at this level that the impotence of the Community is made manifest in the face of resistance from the protagonists of national sovereignty, and becomes most frustrating for those who see a strong Europe as the only real hope for the future of Europeans.

Although the Community has power to impose petty economic regulations upon member countries, it lacks the effective authority necessary to enforce their compliance in important domestic or foreign policy issues. It is obliged to rely, instead, upon the willing co-operation of the national authorities, and so, on the occasions when this is lacking, essential reforms such as those relating to education in Europe - as, for example, those advocated for the development of pre-school education, which might well have become part of British policy - may be deferred, side-stepped or even disregarded.

To date, the E.E.C. has published several papers on the subject of educational policy in the period since 1974, and all have published a similar range of objectives, a summary of which is provided below. All these papers are listed subsequently in the bibliography. The priorities

selected for action included provisions for the education of migrant workers; closer relations between the various national educational systems; the establishment of equal opportunities for all, the right to education, and help in the transition from school to work for young people; the promotion of language teaching in Europe; the extension of knowledge about Europe and the European institutions amongst its citizens, all to the end that Europeans should learn to live together in a single and democratic society.

First, as regards the objective of providing for the cultural and vocational training of migrant workers - those from countries outside, as well as inside, the European Community, and for the education of their children. In 1979 there were eleven million such migrant workers and over two million children under eighteen years of age. Each member state is required to provide reception classes for the new arrivals where they can learn the language of the host country, tuition for the children in the language and culture of their country of origin, and specialised training for teachers working with the children of migrants, in accordance with a Community Directive adopted in July 1977. According to a progress report from the European Economic Community Education Committee to the Council and Ministers of Education in Brussels on the 7th July 1980 a number of initiatives has been undertaken at national and Community levels.

Measures by the member states themselves have included the organisation of the reception centres for providing tuition to immigrants in the language of the host country, tuition for the children in the language and culture of their countries of origin (if possible in school and in collaboration with the country of origin), and provision of information for families on the training and educational facilities available to them. At the Community level the work of the member states

has been complemented by pilot projects, research studies, colloquia and exchanges of information, all designed to point the way to the improvement of methods of coping with the problems involved.

Pilot projects have included one for the training of local French teachers at four centres - Douai, Grenoble, Lyons and Metz - floated by the Directorate-General of Schools of the French Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Centre de Recherche et d'Etudes pour la Diffusion du Français (CREDIF) and the Centre de Formation et d'Information de Personnels concernes par la Scholarisation des Enfants de Migrants (CEFISEM). Another, for training foreign teachers to work in reception classes or to teach their own languages in normal classes, was conducted in Nordrhein-Westfalen - for Italian primary teachers during 1976-7, and Greek teachers during 1977-8.

In Belgium, at Winterslag-Waterschei in Hasselt, an experiment with first and second year primary pupils was intended to provide a crash course in Dutch, to maintain the children's language of origin, and also to help migrant children to acquire a basic grasp of the three Rs, and be able to integrate into the host environment. Similar experiments, to find out the most effective approach to the reception of the children of migrant workers, have also been conducted at Leyden in the Netherlands - where the aim has been to prepare Moroccan and Turkish children for assimilation into local schools with children of their own age group within two years of arrival, as well as in Luxembourg and at Odense.

Experimental classes to teach immigrant children their native language and culture were also conducted in Paris and in Bedford, U.K. In Paris fifteen classes were provided in Spanish, Italian, Portuguese and Serbo-Croat in seven schools. The classes were of three hours a week duration, and were intended to facilitate re-integration in their

country of origin for those intending to return, while at the same time introducing the children to French language and culture to help them to settle down more easily in the host country. Effort was made to arouse the interest of teachers, pupils and parents in the project, and as time went on attitudes on the part of teachers and parents moved from one of initial hostility to an overwhelming number in favour. The classes in Bedford involved about one hundred Italian and Punjabi pupils in four primary schools being taught for some five hours per week, with similar objectives to those of the Paris scheme. The Bedford scheme had not been assessed at the time of the report.

New pilot projects were also launched in September 1979 as follows:- teaching of culture and language of origin in Marseilles, France, reception methods at Enschede in Holland and teacher training in the Brussels area.

According to the Commission Report on the pilot-schemes relating to education of migrants workers children dated 27th April 1984(1) an evaluation of the schemes, in their first stage (1978-1980) was entrusted to the A.L.F.A. Research Group (University of Essen and Erziehungswissenschaft-Liche Hochschule of Landau), and in a later stage (1981-1983)to the A.L.F.A. Group of the CREDIF (Ecole Normal Superieure de St Cloud, Paris), and is was on these reports that the Commission based its own. Conclusions included the following:-

1. In general, it has been found that "... the effectiveness of the teaching of the host country's language is proportionate to its intensiveness".(2)

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1. Commission Report to the Council on Pilot Schemes relating to Education of Migrant Workers' Children, COM(84)224 Final, Brussels, 27th April 1984.

2. Commission Report to the Council, ibid., p.36.

2. Immigrant children benefit from pre-school education where they can learn the host country's language "quite naturally through contact with local children and teachers "... Bilingualism at an early age seems to be a vital element in language learning and the intellectual development of children who use different languages at home and at school".(1)

3. Pre-school education "... benefits by taking into account the linguistic and cultural characteristics of the home back-ground, while ensuring that they integrate in the society of the host country through both play and work".(2)

4. "Teaching of the language and culture of origin at primary school level "... must be co-ordinated with ordinary education, both in terms of methods and content, if it is not to lose a considerable degree of educational effectiveness".(3)

5. At secondary school level "it is strongly recommended that the languages of the immigrant communities should be given the same status as other basic subjects. The maintenance and development of immigrant cultures in the host country merits the particular attention of the education authorities ... (and) ... the intercultural aspect is a factor of mutual enrichment ... benefiting both local and immigrant children".(4)

The research studies have been undertaken by various experts and research institutions. Thus in 1975-1976 AIMAV made a study of the

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1. Commission Report to the Council, ibid., p.10.
2. Commission Report to the Council, ibid., p.35.
3. Commission Report to the Council, ibid., p.36.
4. Commission Report to the Council, ibid., p.36.

"Linguistic problems of migrant workers' children" in which it reviewed the present research on the learning of the language of the host country by migrant children, the need for the mother tongue, and the linguistic and socio-linguistic aspects of the bi-lingualism of such children".(1) Programmes of bi-lingual education as conducted in the schools of such bi-lingual regions as Luxembourg, Ireland or Wales, as well as those operating in certain international schools, were analysed to demonstrate that teaching of this kind was wholly practical.

A current survey on the subject of language teaching to adults has centred upon linguistic training for the migrant worker and his adult dependents. Detailed case studies have been compiled by a German research institute to describe the educational and vocational guidance techniques for foreign children which have been adopted in Bradford, Brussels, Liege, Roubaix and Munchengladbach.(2) C.I.T.O., a Dutch institute based upon Arnhem, is adapting a language test for the assessment of foreign students during the brugklas which comes in the first year of secondary education.

In 1978-1979 the B.B.C., which has acquired considerable expertise in the teaching of English to British immigrants, organised two meetings between radio and television producers and experts from the various European education ministries, to consider the contribution the mass media is able to make to the education of migrants.

As regards exchanges of information the E.E.C. has itself conducted a large number of seminars for the purpose of bringing together educationalists, research workers and administrators from the respective

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1. "Children of Migrant Workers", Educational Series No.1, European Commission, 1977, p.11.

2. Beruflich Bildung, Heft 20/21, Berufsvorbersitung und Berufsausbildung fur auslandische Jugendliche, Internationaler Bund fur Sozialarbeit, Frankfurt a. Main, 1978.

Ministries of Education to discuss how best the Community policies, already laid down under Directive 77/486 E.E.C. 25th July 1977, may be implemented. The management of the various Pilot Projects have also been consulted.

The Commission has been paying close attention to the work, in related fields, of the Council of Europe and U.N.E.S.C.O. Through the work of A.E.F.A., The Cologne and Neuss Teachers' Training College Research Group, the Community has also been involved in making assessments of pilot projects conducted by member states of the C.C.C. In ways such as these the very limited scope of the E.E.C.-sponsored pilot schemes can be remedied, in order to arrive at more realistic solutions.

The Commission recommended in 1980, that, in addition to intensifying the existing efforts, special attention should be focussed upon the pre-primary education of migrant children, participation of parents of migrant children in education, guidance of young migrants making the transition from school to work, and the particular needs of migrants of later generations.

Secondly, to establish closer relations between the various national education systems within the Community, particularly at the level of higher education, and to provide the various education authorities with an effective documentation system. Among the recommended ways in which this might be achieved were regular meetings between national administrators, and study visits to other member countries for education administrative staff at all levels - national, regional and local. At the teaching level, mobility of teachers, researchers, and students in higher education should be facilitated by elimination of quantitative restrictions, or financial or administrative discrimination which has deterred them from working or studying in

another country, and by creating schemes for the mutual recognition of qualifications, periods of study undertaken elsewhere, and grants and scholarships to make it less difficult. It was recommended that a students' guide to education in the Community should also be published. Secondary school teachers should have opportunities for study visits and exchanges, with special emphasis on language teachers. Pupil exchanges should also be made easier - and special provisions made to extend these benefits to isolated, handicapped or underprivileged pupils, or those from countries with minority languages. A standard school record card was also proposed to facilitate transfer of pupils from schools in one country to those of another.

As regards the need recognised for more effective documentation - to help the flow of information and statistics throughout the Community, an information network was advocated, which was first to be established at national level, and later at international level, to help all those engaged in policy-making, or research. To bring information to the citizens of the Community, information handbooks should be compiled for pupils at secondary level, colloquiums and study visits organised and supported, grants provided to enable local educational administrators to undertake short study visits, and contacts between teacher and parent organisations, and young people generally, encouraged. Finally, every opportunity should be taken to promote collaboration, and the pooling of ideas and resources, between the Community, the Council of Europe, the O.E.C.D. and U.N.E.S.C.O.

Measures so far taken towards the implementation of these recommendations are listed in the progress report which was presented to the Council by the Education Committee of the E.E.C.(1)

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, 8137/80, Brussels, 7th July 1980.

Regular meetings have indeed been established for national education administrators - not only at top, but also at regional and local levels. In point of fact two such top-level meetings had already been conducted, at Cambridge and Berchtesgaden, before recommendations to this effect had been made by the Council in 1976.(2) Subsequently meetings have been held on a regular basis. The Netherlands government conducted one in May 1977 to discuss the Dutch education system, and it was proposed that thereafter attention should be focussed upon relations between education and society, particularly as it effects the sixteen to nineteen year olds, policy and decision-making in education, and the costs of education. The next, in May 1979, organised by the French Ministry of Education, was concerned with the objectives and organisation of secondary education, and the development of France's 'College unique' or comprehensive school. In November 1980 the Italian Ministry of Education conducted a meeting on the theme of decentralisation of education, and interaction between local and central education authorities.

Some meetings have also been organised for local and regional policy-makers. In 1981 a conference of this kind was organised as a follow up of the 1979 French Ministry of Education's seminar on secondary education for their counterparts at national level. In 1978-9 a programme of study visits for local and regional secondary school administrators was developed, enabling officials to visit another European country for a period of seven to ten days to study the secondary general or technical education system there at first hand. Since then, emphasis has been placed on the first cycle of secondary education, and in some countries head teachers have been allowed to join their delegations.

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1. Meeting of the Council of Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No. C 38/1; Part IV, para: 4.

As regards progress towards achieving enhanced mobility for teachers, enabling them to practise their profession in countries other than their own,(1) the education committee discussed the matter on two occasions during 1977, and because of current teacher surpluses in many countries, recommended that such mobility should, for the time being at least, be confined to short-term visits and exchanges, which are considered subsequently in the context of the teaching of foreign languages throughout the Community. In the belief, however, that this teacher surplus will not last for ever, the Commission, recognising the barriers to teacher mobility which exists today, convened a meeting of national experts in March 1979, and undertook detailed investigations into the whole question of teacher qualifications throughout the member countries of the Community.

> Subsequently, some progress has been made as part of a general move to ease mutual recognition of degrees, diplomas and periods of study from other Member States. In particular, the establishment of information centres on recognition in every Member State has made life easier for those teachers wishing to know in advance what the real value of their qualifications in another country will be.
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> However, it must be said that the major obstacle to the free movement of teachers within the Community has been the requirement of most Member States that those teaching posts paid for out of public funds should be reserved either for their own nationals or for foreigners with national degrees. This situation is complex legally, since it is a matter of judgement just how far the principle of free movement of labour established by the Treaty of Rome can be limited by the exception made in Article 48(4) of that Treaty for employment in the public service. The case of teachers is under study by the Commission, and has not yet been tested before the Court of Justice.(2)

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1. Meeting of the Council, etc., of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No C38/1; Part IV, Para: 6.

2. David Coyne, Directorate General for Employment - Social Affairs and Education, Brussels, 29th October 1984.

In pursuance of the aim of providing for the enhanced mobility of school-children, the Commission organised a Colloquium of national and regional experts in Venice during October 1977 to study the whole question of pupil exchange. The Commission subsequently sought to implement the recommendations of the Venice Colloquium that such exchanges should be increased, in the context of its recommendations on the teaching of languages dated 20th June 1978. Subsequently, however, the Education Committee insisted that such exchanges should be considered in a wider educational context, and not limited solely to pupils undertaking the study of languages. Since then, not only has the Commission published the entire proceedings of the Venice Colloquium but it has also undertaken preliminary studies for a Community Handbook for teachers and organisers of pupil visits and exchanges.(1) As yet another contribution to the cause of pupil mobility, helping the children of families moving between the member countries of the Community, the Commission, taking its cue from the resolutions of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, dated 9th February 1976,(2) considered introducing a Standard School Record Card into the Community as early as 1977, along the lines of that already proposed by the Council of Europe during the previous year. "Following detailed discussions, both at Community and Council of Europe level, ... it became clear that less than a quarter of the countries concerned were prepared to use the document, and the project was therefore abandoned.(3)

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1. Meeting of the Council, etc., of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of Education, No C38/1; Part IV, paragraph 5.
2. Meeting of the Council, etc., of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of Education, No. C38/1; Part IV. paragraph 7.
3. David Coyne, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education, Brussels, 29th October 1984.

As regards the achievement of closer links between higher education establishments(1) such links have already existed for the universities over a long period, in that their rectors have attended not only national, but also international rectors' conferences convened between the member states of the Community. Meetings called by the Education Committee in December 1977 and January 1979 were therefore held to bring together representatives from the higher education establishments not hitherto represented, so as to find ways of remedying this situation and to promote co-operation. A consultative document has accordingly been drawn up by the Education Committee.

In 1977 a scheme was introduced to provide grants for short study visits of some 4-6 weeks duration by teachers, researchers and administrators to other member states. The intention is that they will be able to study higher education establishments in the other Community countries, particularly as regards the relationships between these and the local, regional and national structures of those countries. During 1979-1980 applications were particularly invited from those with responsibilities in the fields of student course choices, career guidance, staff training, student admissions, and the assessment of academic qualifications. So far 210 grants have been awarded under the scheme.

Joint study grants have also been developed to encourage collaborations between higher education institutions in different Community countries since 1976. So far, 121 joint programmes, involving 212 higher education establishments have benefited under the grants. During 1979-1980 alone, 74 projects have received support, of which about half were entirely new projects. A report which came out in 1980 listed evaluations of the scheme by all the programme directors who have been beneficiaries so far.

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1. Meeting of the Council, etc., of 9th February 1976, Part IV, paragraphs, 13-16.

As regards promotion of mobility amongst students in higher education, such as was recommended in the 1976 resolution, the Education Committee has been concerned to facilitate admission of students into the higher education institutions of countries other than their own, and to this end discussions were held in Bonn in September 1977, involving representatives from higher education establishments in all the member states, to examine the problems involved, propose solutions, and to submit them to the Commission, who in turn passed them on to the Council of Ministers in September 1978.(1)

Amongst the principles and objectives proposed, the Education Committee included the elimination of obstacles to student mobility, and the requirement that the conditions under which a student be admitted to another country's higher education institutions should on no account be any less favourable than the conditions normally offered to the country's own students. Where countries were already obliged to limit places available to their own nationals in a particular discipline e.g. medicine, or where there was already excessive pressure from foreign applicants unable to obtain a place in their own country, then such countries might be exempted from the requirement to allow foreign students in so long as they were required to exclude their own.

Anxious not to trespass upon the autonomy of higher education establishments the Education Committee has proposed that such establishments should be invited to offer a 'reasonable number' of places to foreign students, even if there were a policy of numerical limitation in force already. If problems should arise, the member state would be able to request that these be examined at Community level. Every encouragement, however, should be given to reciprocal arrangements between institutions for the exchange of students.

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1. Recommendations for the "Admission of Students from other Member countries to institutions of Higher Education, Commission, R/2503/78 - EN 49, 29th September 1978.

The Education Committee further recommended that the practice of giving students 'credit' for periods of study undertaken anywhere in the Community should be facilitated and encouraged. Applicants should not be subject to any more stringent academic, or non-academic, requirements than those normally imposed upon home students, although overseas students could reasonably be expected to hold qualifications which made them eligible for higher education in their own country, and acceptable to the host country. In the case of a student undertaking a course component in another country, it would be essential that the study undertaken abroad should be approved by the competent authority in the home institution as adequate to meet their course requirements and lead to their qualification.

Where tuition fees were payable in a member state, they should not be higher for foreign students than for home students, although it might not always be practical to ensure this when students arrive from a new member state in the first year of accession. Where member states pay maintenance grants to students, they should still pay them while students are undertaking an approved part-time course abroad. The host country should not be liable to pay maintenance to the foreign student, nor should it charge tuition fees for the part course if its own home students are not liable to pay such fees.

The host country should be entitled to require evidence of language proficiency sufficient for the student to cope with his proposed course from the student in advance. Arrangements should be made by the host country to offer pre-course language training as required.

The Education Committee recommended that each member state and all higher education institutions in that state should compile a "common list of basic information and documentation" which is "required from all applicants from other member states" and that information should be

collected at community level concerning each member states' arrangements for receiving and advising foreign students, and discussions should be arranged between member states to help identify and solve the problems between them.

Information should be compiled at Community level concerning the scale and evolution of student mobility between the member states and the effects of numerical limitations upon this mobility, and this information should be available to member states. Development in the policies of member states should be reviewed regularly by the Education Committee, on the basis of information supplied by the member states and by the Commission.

Information has been collected concerning, both the extent to which periods of teaching and research in other member states affect calculation of seniority and pension entitlements, but also the existing arrangements for recognising one another's qualifications, and their practical effects upon student mobility.(1) In considering the above information and in seeking solutions, the Education Committee is also taking into account a U.N.E.S.C.O. convention signed in Paris in December 1979 on the "recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees concerning high education in the States belonging to the Europe region".(2)

Concerning the recommendations of the 1976 "action programme in the field of education", that documentation should be improved by the setting up of an information network, that a students' information handbook should be compiled, and that the Statistical Office of the European Communities

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of Education, No C/38/1; Part IV, paragraphs 15 and 16.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, Brussels, 27th June 1980, p.26.

should expand the data available on co-operation within educational, these have been implemented in full.(1)

A network was agreed in January 1978 and became fully operational in 1980 under the name - Eurydice - designed to cover information in four main areas of specialisation - the teaching of foreign languages, education for migrant workers and their families, the transition from school to work and access and admission to higher education. This network was established in close consultation with the Council of Europe. An Information Handbook for students in higher education in all the member states has been published providing information on Europe's Higher Education Systems, on the courses available, admission requirements, costs and conditions, qualifications awarded, etc., in all the official languages of the Community since 1977. The first edition sold 20,000 copies and the second impression a further 12,000. A second edition in October 1979 sold an initial impression of 50,000.

The Statistics Office of the European Community periodically issues publications on educational statistics in the Eurostat Series, and in addition a "Working Party on Education and Training Statistics" was set up in October 1977, comprising experts from various national statistics offices, Ministries of Education, and Labour and Social Affairs. It meets twice a year and is supported by technical sub-groups as and when required.

Thirdly, as regards the objective of establishing equal opportunities, the right to education and help in the transition from school to work for the young people of Europe, these were the declared

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of Education, No. C 38/1; Part IV, Paragraphs 9, 11 and 12.

aims of the Council and Ministers of Education in their action Programme in the field of education dated 9th February 1976.(1) The means recommended were by "exchange of views and experience ... organised at Community level, focussing on all aspects of school organisations, but particularly on secondary admission and selection of courses to suit "personal aspirations and abilities and ... vocational opportunities", and "the provision ... of further education to enable young workers and ... unemployed ... to improve their chances of finding employment".

As regards this later objective, the Ministers of Education, meeting in council, decided on further measures designed to prepare school-leavers for working life later in the same year.(2)

The member states agreed in particular to concentrate on:- first, developing curricula and teaching methods which prepared pupils for working life; secondly, promoting a system of continuous educational and vocational guidance involving parents, teachers and councellors; thirdly, providing continuing educational and training opportunities for young people, particularly those who have left school without adequate education; fourthly, providing special help for young people who, because of social and economic disadvantages or personal handicaps, are most at risk in the employment market; fifthly, strengthening links between teachers and the vocational and placement services. Finally, at Community level, plans were set out for an action programme over the period 1976-1980. Under this programme, grants were to be made available to support information exchanges, study visits by vocational guidance specialists, colloquiums

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of Education, No 38/1; Part IV, Paragraphs 20-22.

2. Press release on the 423rd Session of the Council, 29th November 1976, issued by the Secretary General of the Council of the European Communities.

for teachers, administrators, etc. Studies were to be undertaken into common problems such as further education, co-ordination between schools and other sectors involved in vocational guidance, etc. In addition some thirty pilot projects were to be initiated involving several hundred educational establishments and 10,000 young Europeans at an annual cost of some six million European Units of Account (subsidised up to 50% by the Community) and linked by inter-project visits and exchanges and a unique Community system of continuous evaluation. The main themes under consideration included first the educational and training needs of school-leavers who find it difficult to obtain or to keep employment; secondly, the needs of young people who lack interest in study or work, and need stimulus to better motivation; thirdly, measures to help disadvantaged groups such as girls, migrants, or physically and mentally-handicapped young people to succeed in education and employment; fourthly, development of continuous education and vocational guidance based upon co-operation between teachers, vocational guidance and those involved in job replacement, and finally, the initial and in-service training of teachers so that they are better equipped to help young people. All these priorities had been identified in the Resolution of 9th February 1976, according to the General Report of the Education Committee, dated 27th June 1980.(1) Equal opportunity may be denied a child at the very beginning of his or her education, and so, if the child's infant years were marred by socio-economic deprivation, neglect on the part of the parents, or problems of overcoming cultural impoverishment or physical, possibly mental, disability, it can only be made up if measures are undertaken very early on - during the pre-primary stage of education.

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, Brussels, 27th June 1980, p.40.

Actions taken so far at Community level to improve pre-primary education, as advocated in the 1976 Resolution(1), have included a seminar held by the Commission in co-operation with the French Ministry of Education at Sevres in May 1979, the proceedings of which have since been published in the Community's "Education Studies" Series. The contents of this seminar, along with those of the Council of Europe's Conference at Strasbourg in November 1979, and the O.E.C.D. Conference on "Early Childhood Education" held in April 1980, have provided the bases of an Issues Paper by the Commission to the Education Committee in 1980.

It is general policy in most member states, although not at present in the U.K., to expand pre-school facilities in order to help working mothers, to compensate for the ill-effects upon the children of socio-economic deprivation, and help prepare children for their primary education. Reforms are likely to include improved teacher training, better methods of organisation and teaching methods, and better liaison between the pre-primary and primary schools.

As regards education for handicapped children, who form an "underprivileged group" under the terms of the 1976 Resolution,(2) a Danish expert has compiled a survey of facilities in the various member states for the Commission, and this provided the basis for the Rome Conference, organised by the Commission in collaboration with the Italian Ministry of Education in December 1978. Following this conference the Commission began a detailed analysis of the educational problems of physically and mentally-handicapped children, and drew up a series of proposals for their vocational rehabilitation into adult

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No. C 38/1; Part IV, Paragraph 21(a)

2. ibid., Part IV, Paragraph 21(a)

society, involving actions at Community level to coincide with the International Year of the Handicapped. This complements the established support the European Social Fund has already been making towards the vocational rehabilitation of handicapped people. The Commission has also organised a dialogue with national educational experts, and including a representative of C.E.R.I., the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation of the O.E.C.D., which has itself conducted a research programme into the education of handicapped adolescents.

As regards the whole question of opportunities for young girls, they also constitute an underprivileged group in the same terms as migrant children or the disabled, and accordingly the Education Committee has devoted a great deal of consideration to problems of ensuring enhanced opportunity, right of access to all forms of education including those which cut right across established sex stereotypes, and effective preparation of girls for working life.

The Rome Treaties gave support to the principle of equal opportunities for men and women, and this has subsequently been reiterated in various European directives, including one adopted by the Council in February 1976, "providing for equality of treatment for men and women workers as regards access to employment, vocational training and advancement and working conditions".(1) This directive and its implications gave rise to the Resolution of the Council of Ministers meeting on 13th December 1976, and reported in the bulletin of the European Communities, published in December 1976. In this the Ministers concluded that:-

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1. Directive of the Council of Ministers, etc., concerning "equal treatment for men and women", OJ L 39 dated 14th February 1976.

> " ... the organisation and structure of schools, curriculum content and teaching approaches should not differentiate between the needs of boys and girls, but should be such as to allow as much attention as practical to be given to individuals' needs regardless of their sex. This should reduce the risk of discouraging assumptions being made... about ... the subjects and occupations in which girls are likely to succeed or fail",

and which at present often lead to girls being encouraged to:-

> "choose courses of general and academic education which put them at risk of finding only a limited market for their qualifications".

Popular beliefs about women's roles and employment opportunities must be combatted, and guidance provided -

> "on a longer-term basis, accompanied by opportunities for re-education and retraining, so that women may not only be adaptable for a switch in career, but also compete on equal terms for jobs traditionally dominated by men".(1)

The Education Committee's General Report published in 1980,(2) having reiterated previous Community initiatives, went on to propose the following objectives - first, need for education to provide conditions in which all young people can achieve their potential, regardless of their sex; secondly, need for young people to be equipped to earn their own living, share domestic and parental responsibilities, and participate in democratic decision-making and public life; thirdly, need to offer girls opportunities to participate in areas of education, training and employment traditionally unavailable to them; and fourthly, need to ensure that the present unemployment problems do not undermine the progress achieved so far, by redoubling efforts to eradicate obsolete sex-role patterns in the existing education systems.

The Education Committee subsequently proposed that member states should seek to implement these objectives, by ensuring that basic education curricula should be modified to give both sexes wider access

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1. Bulletin "From education to working life", Commission, December 1976, p. 23. Paragraphs 39-40.

2. General Report of Education Committee, etc., 8137/80, p.35.

to subjects traditionally dominated by one sex; drawing attention of teachers to sex-stereotyping in relation to teaching materials and educational media; thereby helping to influence the production of new materials; promoting experimentation and evaluation of specific projects or programmes which prepare girls and their parents to consider a wider range of careers than hitherto; seeking ways of achieving a better sex-balance in the teaching profession and in educational administration, particularly at the higher levels; making teachers in training or on in-service courses aware of their responsibilities to avoid sex-stereotyping, and career advisers of the need to avoid perpuating obsolete sex-role patterns through their advice; research into ways of encouraging equal achievements in girls and boys, including possible compensatory strategies on behalf of girls also disadvantaged by socio-economic, geographical factors; and ensuring that, as far as possible, relevant educational facilities are broken down by sex to facilitate easier monitoring of future trends in the education and future careers of girls compared to those of boys.

Attention was focussed upon the following measures to be implemented soonest, in the period 1980-1983. Promotion of studies, research and exchange of experience on the relative merits of single-sex as opposed to co-educational establishments; on how best to develop in teacher training staff and career advisers greater skill in the avoidance of sex-stereotyping, on how to evaluate compensatory programmes designed to promote equality between boys and girls in transition from education to work; on using the mass media in conjunction with education to improve young people's attitudes and aspirations in life, on how to help ethnic minorities to come to terms with the promotion of equality of opportunity in girls about to embark upon adult life; and on how to keep policy-makers and teachers informed upon research findings and new ideas,

so that they, are encouraged to undertake further research or embark upon new measures. Finally, it was recognised that more research was required into ways in which international organisations could achieve fuller co-operation in this field.

A dramatic rise in unemployment levels amongst young people was apparent even in the early seventies within the countries of the Community, and prompted the inclusion of a call for Community action in:-

> "helping prepare young people for work ... thereby reducing the risks of unemployment", and for provision of further education to enable young workers and ... unemployed persons to improve their chances of finding employment"

by drawing up an initial report on these matters before July 1976, in the action programme in the field of education which was resolved by the Council in February 1976.(1) This initial report was indeed published under the title "The preparation of young people for work and for transition from education to working life", and finally gave rise to a further resolution of the Council of a similar title which was published in December 1976.(2)

In the General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programmes of February and December of 1976, which was submitted to the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council on 27th June 1980, on page 39, it was proposed that developments which had occurred up to September 1979 would be considered under the same headings as those proposed for the action programme embodied in the Resolution of 13th December 1976, under Section III, namely -

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No.C 38/1: Part IV, Para.22(a) & (b).

2. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 13th December 1976, concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life.

1. The implementation of pilot projects,
2. The preparation of reports,
3. The organisation of study visits and workshops,
4. The preparation of statistical guidelines, and
5. The extension of information arrangements.(1)

The measures to be carried out at Community level have been managed by the Commission in liaison with the Education Committee and the liaison officers designated by the national ministries of education for this purpose. Meetings were held between these officials in Brussels on the 2nd March and 19th September 1979, and the details of progress which were brought to those meetings provided the basis of the General Report published in 1980.(2)

As regards the pilot projects initiated in an effort to develop national policies to combat the problems of young people up to and immediately after leaving school, these were focussed upon the six interlinked priorities identified in the 1976 Resolution, namely -

(a) the educational and training requirements of those leaving the educational system who encounter problems in securing and retaining employment,

(b) the problems of poor motivation amongst many young people towards education and work,

(c) compensatory action for specific groups such as girls, young migrants, and physically and mentally handicapped young people,

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 13th December 1976, concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life. p.10, Section III, Paragraphs 1-5.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, Brussels, 27th June 1980, pp.40-48.

(d) the development of continuous guidance and counselling services in which the schools, vocational guidance offices, training facilities and placement agencies should be involved in collaboration with one another,

(e) the improvement of vocational preparation before and after school-leaving age, by the improvement of co-operation between the educational and employment sectors, and

(f) the promotion of measures to improve the initial and in-service training of teachers so that they may more effectively prepare young people for their working life.(1)

The first year of the programme was given over to detailed planning towards the objectives to be met, the selection criteria upon which projects would be chosen, and the means by which fair balance, in terms of geographical areas covered, priority sectors considered and age range, considered.

The projects had to be capable of ready application to real-life situations, and they had to offer scope for the involvement of teachers, parents, career advisers, employers, in them. Advisory or Management Committees involving these interested parties were to be an integral part of each project. Once this preparation was completed and approved by the Education Committee, a first series of projects was invited from the member states. Once these had been approved - by November 1977 - a second and final batch were invited and approved in March 1978, bringing the total number up to 29 pilot projects. These 29 projects have included sub-projects in several hundred different educational establishments, involving, over the duration of the programme, about

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1. Resolution of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 13th December 1976, concerning measures to be taken to improve the preparation of young people for work and to facilitate their transition from education to working life, p.10, Section III, Paragraph 1 (a) - (f).

10,000 young Europeans. A satisfactory balance has been achieved in dealing with those groups of young people most disadvantaged, although not necessarily achieving that balance at all stages of the programme. The Community originally planned to support the projects for up to three years - 1978-1981 - contributing up to 50% of the total costs which stood at 2.4M E.U.A. in 1978-1979, with the local, regional and national authorities paying the balance. In point of fact the original estimates were off-course, and to maintain their projects at full scope many member states have opted to pay considerably more, making some 6M. E.U.A. in the same year of operation. Many projects did not become fully operational until September 1979, and so it became necessary to extend them beyond the three year period originally envisaged. On 15th January 1978 the Council and Ministers of Education passed a resolution extending the pilot projects to 1981-1982, and making the evaluation period run to the end of 1982. Allowing for synthesis and evaluation, therefore, the result of the projects is not likely to become available to the Education Committee before sometime in 1983.

The pilot projects have been continuously evaluated, and have been used for co-operative learning - by encouraging personnel from related projects, sometimes even at the level of the young people involved, to visit one anothers' project locations and to exchange experiences at small colloquia. The first five colloquia held were:- "Unqualified school-leavers disenchanted with school", Cannes, April 1978; "Unmotivated less-able students on their last years at school", Edinburgh, November 1978: "Teacher Training for transition to working life", Stuttgart, March 1979: "Work experience and alternating forms of training", Amsterdam, April 1979; and "Vocational guidance and counselling", Ludwigshafen, June 1979. A quarterly newsletter is being published and circulated between all the pilot projects.

All Pilot Project Leaders were convened for an Information Meeting with Mr. Guido Brunner - Commissioner concerned with education, and the Commission Education Departments, in March 1979, to place the projects in the context of other work being done at Community level in education. A further meeting was held in the autumn of 1980.

To undertake the continuing evaluation of the Pilot Projects the Education Committee has employed a number of evaluators, in order to ensure that the projects can be used subsequently to provide guidelines for educational reform at Community or national level. So important has this work been regarded, that Denmark, France and the U.K. have devoted additional resources to the evaluation over and above the contribution made by the thirteen official evaluators appointed at Community level.

Two themes in particular have been selected for particular attention in the preparation of reports which formed the second element in the 1976 action programme. Two experts appointed by the Commission, Dr. K. Hufner and Dr. D. Winterhager, have been engaged in co-ordinating the findings of correspondents from each of the national ministries of education on the subject of policy provisions, present and proposed, for the return of young people wishing to undertake further study after their compulsory education has been completed. As regards the second theme - concerned with the experience of member states in strengthening the co-ordinated planning of educational planning in the less-favoured regions of the Community, the Commission has appointed and co-ordinated a whole team of experts from the various member countries to undertake a series of studies during 1979-1980.

Study visits, for the benefit of specialists in Vocational Education and Guidance, have been organised since 1977-1978. The visits are of two weeks' duration, and give the specialist a chance to compare

the situation confronting his counterpart in another member state. The member states themselves select the candidates and operate their own reception arrangements, while the Central Bureau for Educational visits and Exchanges operates a clearing house and provides the overall administration required under the scheme. On the basis of experience, the visits have been made more specifically oriented to vocational guidance, and greater emphasis placed on the prior briefing, and subsequent evaluation of the experiences, of the candidates.

In addition to study visits, workshops for teachers and teacher training personnel have been organised to consider the transition between school and working life. The first such workshop was held at Harrogate in Yorkshire, U.K. in November 1977, and subsequent workshops have included one in Luxembourg on the subject of preparing girls for working life, in May 1979, another dealing with the relationship between general education and vocational training held at Kassel in West Germany, yet another on risk groups in secondary education in the Netherlands during May 1980, and finally one in Eire dealing with the subject of vocational counselling and guidance and the contribution it can make to the transition from school to work. At these workshops educationalists from various parts of Europe are able to discuss common problems and seek common courses of action.

The Statistical Office of the European Communities has, after consultation with authorities and specialists at Community and national levels, drawn up guidelines for the member states so that they can identify and clarify their needs and priorities as regards comparable statistical information on the transition from education to working life, so that these can come before the Education Committee, and provide effective statistical resources in future for planners, policy makers, and others concerned with educational problems. Since it came into

operation in 1980, the Community's own information network, Eurydice, has also made vocational guidance and the transition from school to work one of its priority areas for documentation, as indicated on p.137.

Fourthly, the E.E.C. has, since its inception, recognised the importance of language skills as an essential means of communication between Europeans, and to this end sought to promote skilled language teaching and multi-, or at least bi-lingualism, because these are seen as priorities if ever Europe is to achieve political and social integration.

As early as 1974, in a communication to the Council, the European Commission stressed the need "to encourage the ready exchange of ideas and information ... and to diminish the linguistic barriers which exist to the free movement of persons within the Community for cultural and professional purposes".(1) In their "Action programme in the field of education" dated 9th February 1976, the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council advocated the following measures towards these ends. All pupils should be given the opportunity to learn at least one other foreign language; foreign language teachers in training, but also practising language teachers, should have periods of training or for development in a country which uses the language they are studying or teaching; radio and television should be utilised to provide vocational language teaching for adults; and provisions for the employment of language assistants, and for the exchange of pupils or groups of pupils, should be extended. Above all, the Council called for early consultation amongst experts in the field to examine the most up-to-date methods of language teaching available, including those identified already by the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe.(2)

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1. Communication from the Commission to the Council, "Education in the European Community", 11th March 1974, p.12, paragraph 44.
2. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No. C 38/1: Part IV, paras 17-19.

Subsequent progress in the implementation of this action programme has been documented in a number of Community publications, in particular it has been listed in the General Report of the Education Committee to the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council dated 27th June 1980.(1) It may be summarised as follows:-

"In 1976 a group of officials examined the role of modern languages in school syllabuses, and the possible measures which could be used to diversify the number of languages taught and to improve language teaching generally".(2) During 1977 representatives of the universities and of other adult education establishments explored solutions to the problems of teaching languages to people for whom they are part of their vocational training.

In June 1978 the Commission, in a communication to the Council, published an education action programme in which it put forward the following measures as requiring action by the education authorities of member states. The extension of opportunities to pupils at all levels of education to learn at least one foreign language with special measures for less-able pupils, who are usually not included in language provisions; increased opportunities for language teachers, those undergoing initial and those undergoing in-service training, to study their chosen language in the areas in which it is spoken; encouragement for schools through the medium of more than one language, and finally, exchange of experience between member states on the teaching of languages at primary level, with special consideration

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, 8137/80, Brussels, 7th July 1980, pp.27-32, Section 5, Paragraphs A. and B.1-16.

2. European Documentation; "Towards a European education policy". February 1977, Teaching of foreign languages, p.9.

being given to the expertise acquired in this field by those bi-lingual countries which have always had to contend with this problem.(1)

To help give fresh impetus to these measures, the Education Committee proposed to implement the following projects on a trial basis for a period of five years, bearing in mind the need to allocate a fair balance of resources to each of the European languages, including the minority ones.(2)

First, improving the vocational preparation of young people for living and working within the Community by exploring ways in which, when preparing for their careers, they could acquire a working knowledge of at least one other European language; reviewing strategies for helping less-able or less well motivated pupils, those already in use elsewhere in Europe, but also seeking out new methods which might be adopted; and finding ways in which Higher Education students could combine foreign language courses with their chosen discipline as an integral part of their degree courses.

Secondly, teaching languages to adults for vocational purposes as a means of promoting the geographical and vocational mobility of working people, giving particular stress to collaboration between educational and employment sectors to ascertain their language needs so as to improve the exchange programmes organised for them; ascertaining the degree of effort which may be required to develop and apply language teaching methods and materials, including those based upon the mass media; and providing for the training of language teachers for adults, particularly those within general and vocational education.

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1. Commission to Council, "Education Action Programme at Community Level; The teaching of languages in the Community, COM (78) 222 Final, 14th June 1978.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, 8137/80, Brussels, 7th July 1980, pp.29-32.

Thirdly, as regards initial training of foreign language teachers, and the use of foreign language assistants with particular reference to the vocational training of young people and adults, under an experimental project running from 1981-1985 member states are being encouraged to improve initial training for language teachers by providing them with a period in the region whose language is being studied. A special emphasis is being placed upon language teaching in vocational, technical and higher educational establishments, and there are also plans to extend the use of foreign language assistants into all member states, and to include vocational, technical and higher education in this scheme. The Community offers up to 50% support for all such schemes organised by the member states. It is planned to publish a feasibility report on future scope for exchange of foreign language teachers, and of foreign language assistants, in the Community.

Fourthly, as regards providing in-service training for practising foreign language teachers, particularly in the context of vocational training for young people and adults, the intention is to improve the quality of the in-service training abroad, and to extend such opportunities to more teachers - with special emphasis being placed on serving the needs of young people or adults who require their language skills for professional purposes. To these ends schemes will include teacher exchanges or placements for one school term, intensive ten working-day study visits for practising language teachers to enable them to up-date their methodology particularly as it relates to vocational language teaching.

Efforts have also been made, through the preparation of a report on experiences acquired in existing bi-lingual schools such as the European Schools - where the curriculum subjects may be taught in one or other of two languages - to explore the possibility of extending

this practice. Consideration has been given to case-studies undertaken in schools located in border regions or bi-lingual countries, where there has been experience of this kind of work for many years. The Education Committee will base its future policies on this report. There has also been some study to ascertain how far the minority European languages are being studied in other Community countries, and to find ways of encouraging this still further.

Finally, it has always been recognised by the Community that Europeans ought to be well-informed about European countries and about the Community. Since the early days, financial support has been given to encourage university research projects on Europe and European integration, and to provide for the compilation of a register of university research theses on integration. Organisations seeking to promote European unity have also been given support, as also have teachers and student groups visiting the European Community institutions.

Since 1976 the scope of these promotional activities has been extended. The Council's action programme in the field of education of 9th February 1976(1) advocated that short-study visits for teachers and pupils to other member states, national information services for schools, advisory services to promote pupil and teacher mobility, contacts between staff of teacher-training establishments, and the introduction of a European dimension in school curricula, were all to be actively encouraged and undertaken by the education authorities of the various member states. It was further proposed that schemes for the recognition of periods of study abroad, enabling teachers to practise their professions elsewhere than in their own countries, and

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1. Resolution of the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No. C 38/1, Part IV, paragraphs 5 and 6.

for setting up international multilingual schools, should be investigated at Community level.

The Education Committee, having examined the diversities of European Education, concluded that each country must find its own best way of ensuring that its pupils are better informed both as regards the individual European countries, but also the Community to which they all now belong. They also concluded that European Studies were best introduced through the established school subjects or through interdisciplinary studies, rather than by means of a new school subject, although this recommendation was subsequently disregarded in the U.K.

The Commission recommendations of the 8th June 1978(1) included concrete proposals for the encouragement of studies of European problems in their geographical, historical and political aspects. On the basis of these, and in response to concern expressed by the European Parliament and the Economic and Social Committee that young people throughout the Community should experience a European dimension in their studies, the Education Committee(2) recommended that nation states should, through the action of appropriate authorities, ensure that pupils in school develop an awareness of Europe and reasonable knowledge of the European Community; existing school curricula are examined with a view to modification as necessary; a European dimension be included in the initial and in-service training of teachers; teaching materials about the Community are developed and made available to schools throughout Europe, and finally that exchanges of information and experience in teaching about Europe should be encouraged between Community countries.

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1. Commission to Council "Educational activities with a European content: The Study of the European Community in Schools", COM (78) 241 final.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, Brussels, 27th June 1980, pp.11-14.

The Education Committee also advocated the following promotional measures to be undertaken at Community level. Co-operation between teacher training institutions should be encouraged, with study visits being arranged for the teaching, administrative and inspection staff involved; short study visits for teachers teaching about Europe; the provision of teaching materials about the European Community, and the employment of studies and experiments to find out the most effective teaching materials and methods for teaching about Europe, with priority given to experiments by groups of schools or teacher-training establishments.

There should be efforts made to promote exchanges of information and experience through organisation of seminars for experts, teacher training staff and teachers; reports of such seminars in all Community languages; and exploration of all possible ways in which existing organisations could co-operate more fully in providing for the needs of teachers.

As regards a recommendation of the Council in its action programme in the field of education dated 9th February 1976,(1) that teachers should be given the opportunity to teach for a period in another Community country, the Education Committee looked into ways in which to provide such opportunities.

Apart from the fact that there was already a teacher surplus in many countries, the Education Committee, when it first considered the question in 1977, was confronted with many obstacles to the free movement of teachers, and decided to focus its attention, instead, upon short-term teacher mobility, in the form of teacher visits and exchanges.

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, No. C 38/1, Part IV, paragraph 6.

Subsequently, however, the Commission has been able to look more deeply into the possibility of long-term teacher movement. In March 1979, a meeting of national experts was convened, and on their recommendations the Commission has devised a questionaire with a view to producing a detailed picture of the systems of teacher qualifications which appertain in the various member states.

In November 1976, the Commission called together a Colloquium of representatives from all the member states and of various kinds of European and international schools. A meeting of non-governmental experts followed in March 1977, and on the basis of these discussions the Education Committee met again in May 1977 to consider whether or not the Community ought to establish international-type schools. The difficulties - notably financial, and the benefits - particularly as regards language learning, were weighed together, and in further discussions held in 1978, the Education Committee decided not to recommend the establishment of any such schools, but rather to encourage an extension of language teaching in schools.

Substantial as all such Community initiatives have been, in terms of colloquia, consultations, conferences, information services, pilot schemes and recommendations - there has despite all been a terrible short-fall between what has been put to the national educational authorities through their Ministries of Education, and what has finally been implemented.

It might fairly be argued, therefore, that whereas the E.E.C.'s most effective contribution to Europe has been through the successful measures it has taken towards economic and ultimately political integration, while its recommendations have often had little effect upon reality, the contributions of the next institution to be considered, measured in terms of European economic integration but also in terms of educational reform, have been effective in inverse proportions. The

Council of Europe, which in its early years displayed such massive political potential but was thwarted in what might have been its central sphere of aspiration, has subsequently concentrated its efforts upon creating a social climate amicable towards the idea of a united Europe, through the promotion of European consciousness. This however, is the essential prerequisite of any such union, since it cannot hope to succeed unless the mass of European people have grown to want it.

The Council of Europe was established in May 1949, soon after the close of hostilities, its declared aim being to "achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realising the aims and principles of their common heritage", and to facilitate their economic and social progress through "discussion of questions of common concern and by agreements and common action in economic, social, cultural, scientific, legal and administrative matters, and in the maintenance and further realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms". Its initial membership stood at fifteen, and amongst the waivering European powers there were some which, at the time that they signed the Strasbourg Protocol in 1950, displayed their willingness to surrender a part of their sovereignty in order to set up an effective supranational legislature. In retrospect, it is a tragedy that Britain stood out against these proposals and insisted that the Council's powers should be confined to making recommendations, thereby frustrating the hopes cherished by the European Federalists - that it would provide the nucleus of a United States of Europe. Despite this early loss of initiative, however, the Council of Europe is, today, the largest grouping of nations in Europe - with twenty-one member states including Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, France, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Leichtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the U.K., and The Federal

Republic of West Germany. Every member state is required, on joining, to accept the principles of individual freedom, political liberty and the rule of law as the basis of its internal policies, and to be ready to promote the greater unity between member states which has been the council's declared aim from its inception. Most relevant to this study, however, the Council's spheres of concern include "cultural" affairs, and this has been interpreted as including education, which may be defined as society's means for the transmission of its culture. The work of the Council of Europe in this area is accordingly vested in a formal steering committee - the Comite Directeur pour Co-operation Culturelle, or C.C.C., which was established in 1962.

The C.C.C. has two additional members to the Council's twenty-one, the Holy See and Finland - and is responsible for handling about 20% of the Council's budget of nearly four million pounds. Of this C.C.C. allocation of £754,000 (1979), the U.K. contributed £110,000. The C.C.C.'s central aim is to help its twenty-three member states to improve their education systems; first, by bringing new ideas, techniques, and achievements originating in one member state to the attention of the others, secondly, by studying the questions identified as important by the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education (a body which meets bi-ennially in the capital of one member country to discuss the educational programmes of E.E.C., O.E.C.D., C.C.C. and U.N.E.S.C.O. and makes its own recommendations on aspects of educational and cultural policy), thirdly, by helping to develop contacts and co-operation between European educators, fourthly, by promoting mutual aid between member states, fifthly, by "making the peoples of Europe aware of their common heritage and their common responsibilities as Europeans," and finally, by helping to "create conditions in which the right educational opportunities are available to young Europeans whatever their background or level of academic accomplishment, and to facilitate their adjustment

to changing political and social conditions". Like its parent body, the C.C.C. has its headquarters in Strasbourg. In pursuit of these objectives the C.C.C. sponsors research; seeks to promote the free movement of Europe's academic personnel and students through grants, travel bursaries and scholarships; organises seminars and conferences, and published reports, not only of these conferences and seminars, but also of the more specialised findings of educational experts. In addition to performing these functions of promoting research, evoking discussion and diseminating information and ideas about European unity, the Council of Europe seeks to reach the national policy-makers too. Since it has no legislative powers of its own, this has to be done through Conferences of European Ministers of Education - since the 1960s - and more recently also through the European Ministers of Culture. The Conferences of the European Ministers of Education appear to have originally been intended as an annual event, but have developed into a biennial event. Amongst the more recent of these have been that held in Berne in 1973, on the subject of "The needs of the 16-19 age group in both full-time and part-time education"; one on "The School in its relations with the Community" held in Strasbourg during 1977, another on "Education and equality of opportunity for girls" held at the Hague, 1979, and the one held in Lisbon in 1981 on the subject of "European Co-operation in Education". These conferences have invariably served to launch off whole programmes of research, for which subsequent seminars have served to disemínate the findings to teachers and others involved in education.

In its role as a disseminator of knowledge about Europe, the C.C.C. has concentrated upon the publication of books, mainly in French and English, directed towards the teacher of Geography, History and Civics particularly, since these have been considered the most effective

subjects through which to promote European Consciousness and internationalism. The C.C.C. has also worked in close collaboration with the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, previously referred to on p.118 in the scrutinisation of existing textbooks and the advising, or even commissioning, of the authors of new textbooks. The overall aims are the accuracy and objectivity of information. Its panel of experts pays particular attention, in historical studies, to the balance accorded to social and economic history in relation to political history, and the need for a fair interpretation to be placed upon the actions and motives of the various countries which have participated upon the stage of European history. In Geography they seek authenticity and up-to-date information, the elimination of outmoded stereotypes and a typical regional studies from books, and greater stress placed upon the growing interdependence of nations, growing co-operation and moves towards economic integration amongst the nations of Europe. The teaching of civics, they stress, should present lively and stimulating material concerned with European citizenship, and provide information genuinely helpful and relevant to the real-life interests, concerns and needs of young Europeans themselves.

To this end, the Council of Europe has in all organised seven conferences on the improvement of history textbooks, and four on the improvement of geography textbooks and atlases. In collaboration with the Georg Eckert Institute a conference conducted in 1979 highlighted what had been achieved since the second world war.(1) The impressive range of books published by the Council of Europe on the teaching of

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1. Conference on "Co-operation in Europe since 1945 as presented in resources for the teaching of history, geography and civics in secondary schools", Braunschweig 3-7 December 1979, DECS/EGT (79) 83, C.C.C., Strasbourg, p.3, Section 3.

history, geography and civics - as well as the principles embodied in them, form part of the subject matter of Chapter 8.

The Council has also sought to advance its findings and beliefs through a whole series of Teachers' Seminars held in Donaueschingen in the Federal Republic of Germany. Amongst these, the first, held from 26-28th September 1978, was given over to the problem of presenting "Europe in the secondary school curriculum" and the fourth, held between 8-11th May 1979, was devoted more specifically to the "New trends in history teaching in upper secondary education". The idea behind these seminars for teachers, as behind the conferences for politicians and educational administrators, has been to draw upon their expertise, to inform them, and to stimulate their further thought and action.

Apart from studies concerned with Europe, another area of the school curriculum with which the Council has been seriously concerned for years has been the teaching of modern languages, because this has been seen as a prerequisite of fuller communication and the growth of understanding between Europeans. Under the terms of the European Cultural Convention signed by the member states of the Council of Europe in 1954, Article 2 agreed that "Each contracting party shall ... encourage the study by its own nationals of the languages, history and civilisation of the other contracting parties", and the European Ministers of Education, in resolutions passed during their conferences of 1961 and 1962, reiterated this concern.(1)

Furthermore, as early as 1972 the C.C.C. was discussing the need for, and the production of, a "language learning system for adults" employing a unit/credit system, and starting from a basic grammatical

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1. Neumeister, Editor, "Modern Languages in School", Council of Europe, 1973, Appendices II and III, pp.61-63.

minimum to which was given the name Threshold or T-Level. In 1973 the Committee for out-of-school education and Cultural development of the C.C.C. was able to publish the draft outline for such a system.(1) it was proposed that five levels of linguistic competence could be identified - threshold, basic, general competence, advanced and full professional standard, while a few years later a sixth, yet more elementary stage, the "way-stage", was also included.

In the same year, the Council of Europe published a report commissioned by the Committee for General and Technical Education of the C.C.C. some three years previously.(2) In it Neumeister, not only a member of the above Committee but also Director of Padagogischer Austauschdienst in Bonn, described the considerable discrepancies between the methods, objectives and linguistic attainments appertaining in the various countries examined. His conclusions were as follows:-

> "The goal ... is plain; every European should have at his disposal at least two languages, his own mother tongue and a second language, preferably one of the widely spoken languages. ... Europe needs a substantial polyglot task force".(3)

On the 15-17th May 1979, at Hasselby in Sweden, a Colloquy on "The teaching of the language of the host country to adult migrants" was conducted, and it was observed by the Project Adviser, J.L. Trim, that "Migrant education is an area in which the concepts developed in the Council of Europe Modern Languages project seem to have a ready application".(4)

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1. J.L.M. Trim, "Draft outline of a European units/credits system for modern languages learning by adults", Committee for Out-of-School Education and Cultural Development, CCC/EES (73) 9, Strasbourg, 22nd May 1973.
2. Neumeister, Editor, "Modern Languages in School", Council of Europe, 1973, Appendices II and III, pp.61-63.
3. Neumeister, Editor, op.cit., p.57.
4. Report on the Colloquy on "The teaching of the language of the host country to adult migrants" at Hasselby, Sweden, 15th May 1979, DEC-EES (79) 41 - E, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1979, p.12.

The first Threshold Level Language Unit, for the English Language, which had been devised by J.A. van Ek, who was then Director of the Institute for Applied Linguistics at the University of Utrecht, but is now Reader in English at the University of Groningen, and which was published by Longmans in 1977, now became a model for similar courses for immigrants as well as for subsequent T-Level courses in other languages.

At the time of the Hasselby Colloquy Pilot Projects were already underway in France, under M.L. Porcher, in West Germany, under G. von der Handt, and in Sweden under B. Sandstrom. According to L. Porcher, the German team, which had concentrated on identifying migrant workers' needs and on the co-ordinated design of teaching materials, had practically completed their project in 1981. Similarly, the French 3-tier scheme - involving the development of an "intermediate objective" similar to "Way-stage", an experiment with migrant workers in an Adult Education Class in Paris, and development of a "Preparatory Module designed to bring migrant workers up to the level of the French Certificat d'Aptitude Professionelle, a basic vocational course, was now practically completed. Similarly, the Swedish had almost completed a T-Level course for their migrants, developed out of the needs of migrants as identified, rather than, as in the case of Jan van Ek's work, of the linguistic features of the language under consideration.(1)

Ever since its inception the Council of Europe has been deeply concerned with the whole question of education and culture, and since its permanent committee, the C.C.C. was set up in 1962, it has devoted its whole energies to enriching that culture, and to its preservation, development and onward transmission through education.

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1. Conference, "Across the threshold towards multilingual Europe - vivre le multilinguisme European, Towards communicative autonomy for migrants", by L. Porcher, Strasbourg 23-26th February 1982, CC-GP4 (81) 28, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 10th November 1981, pp.4-5, Paragraph 3.

Between 1964 and 1971 the C.C.C. undertook a detailed survey of the teaching of various subjects in Higher Education - including mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, the mother tongue, foreign languages, classical languages, economics, commercial studies, history, geography, social studies and civics. This survey, carried out in collaboration with the Oxford University Department of Education, was published by the Council of Europe in the European Curriculum Studies Series and was used extensively for the in-service training of teachers and by agents of reform. What this survey revealed was the pressure which was being imposed on the approved canon of school subjects by innovatory subjects such as data processing, sociology, politics, law, technology, consumer education, peace education, development education and training for parenthood. This raises the whole problem of subject priorities, and the criteria by which new subjects might be included or older established subjects dropped, and the validity of inter-disciplinary courses as a means of breaking down artificial barriers between subjects, or of allowing new elements of knowledge to be introduced through existing subjects.

The European Ministers of Education, at their Eighth Conference in Berne in 1973, conducted on the theme - The needs of the 16-19 age group in both full-time and part-time education - recognised, and approved in principle, these moves towards the revitalisation of the curriculum by making it more relevant to every-day life. They recommended the C.C.C. to undertake further studies into this subject, and accordingly the C.C.C. commissioned case-studies into, not only the introduction of new elements of knowledge, or interdisciplinary studies, into the curriclum, but also the whole question of how to encourage pupils to work towards achieving personalised autonomous study. These studies were reported, debated through symposia, and finally compiled

to form three consolidated works under the following titles:-

1. "Interdisciplinarity in Secondary Education", R.A. Wake, Staff Inspector for Secondary Education (England).
2. "The introduction of new elements of knowledge into upper Secondary Education; A.D.C. Peterson, Former Director-General of the International Baccalaureate and Former Director of Oxford University Department of Educational Studies.
3. "Autonomous work by pupils", V. Marbeau, Inspector-General of France.

In 1978 the C.C.C. launched a new project entitled - "Preparation for life", designed to focus upon the transition from school to work and from child to citizen, as part of the secondary school aspect of its school programme in the three years 1978-1981. The aim of the project has been defined by Georg Kahn-Ackermann, the Secretary General of the Council of Europe, as finding out how secondary education can help young people in this age group "to take a full and responsible part in their social and working lives, and equip them with the skills and knowledge necessary to improve their chances of employment and to enable them to adapt to changing conditions".(1) This was part of the preface to the collective publication in a single volume of the works of Wake, Peterson and Marbeau, which had gone out of print, but were recognised to be interrelated and highly relevant to the project.

The main sub-themes of the project were to include preparation of young persons for personal development, for life in society and in a democracy, for further studies and training, and for cultural life.

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1. Georg Kahn-Ackermann, Forward to "Innovation in secondary education in Europe", R.A. Wake, V. Marbeau and A.D.C. Peterson, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1979, p.9.

An earlier major project undertaken by the C.C.C. between 1975 and 1978 had been concerned with pre-school education. The themes considered here included links between pre-school and primary education, the compensatory role of pre-school education, co-operation between pre-school, parents and society, the pre-school education of children of migrant workers, and the provisions for pre-school education in sparsely-populated areas. This project has been comprehensively described by Martin Woodhead in his "Pre-school Education in Western Europe", published by Longman, London, 1979. Its release was prior to the Council of Europe's Conference held during December 1979 as part of their contribution to the "International Year of the Child". This Conference, entitled "From birth to Eight. Young Children in European Societies in the 1980s", was attended by 150 politicians, educators, research workers, and representatives of parents and professional groups from 26 countries.

The Committee for Tertiary Education and Research of the C.C.C. set up a Special Mobility Project between thirteen countries - Austria, Belgium, West Germany, France, Iceland, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey and the U.K., which ran from 1975-1977. The idea was to find practical ways of identifying obstacles to mobility between universities all over Europe for teachers, researchers, and post graduate students. Amongst the recommendations arrived at were the following. There should be information centres at institutional and national levels, co-ordinated at the international level by the Council of Europe, to provide would-be foreign post graduates, teachers and researchers with advice and guidance or practical help on taking up their work in another country, from the aspects of travelling to, settling in, and leaving that other country. Regular and complete statistics for all such European movements should be kept.

Institutions should be encouraged to make agreements relating to

regular visits or exchanges, and periods of researching or teaching abroad, which should then be recognised for seniority rights and incremental or pension purposes. Their work should be reserved, or else people engaged in study, teaching or research abroad should be guaranteed equivalent employment on their return. The principle of Sabbatical years should be extended to all C.C.C. countries.

Post-graduates should be excluded from any restrictive quotas on foreign admissions, since they are individually-selected anyway. They should, in general, enjoy similar privileges in the host country to those enjoyed by its own students, such as opportunities for academic posts, paid work, and social security for themselves and dependents in case of illness or accident. All Higher Education students should have the opportunity to develop competence in, and use, a second language. They might be engaged as language assistants in the host establishment, and universities should be encouraged to organise conferences, etc., in the languages of its foreign students. Anyone seeking an academic career should be competent in at least another foreign language.

Post-graduates should be exempted from special levies imposed on foreigners, and there should be no restrictions upon how they use their grants, scholarships or loans in another country. At the national level there should be better co-ordination between the bodies which award grants, scholarships or fellowships for study or work overseas. Scholarships should be designed to help correct the imbalance between foreign students visiting the favoured and less-favoured countries, and students from the less-favoured countries seeking to visit other countries. Governments should have funds reserved for the purpose of helping foreign applicants wishing to come to their institutions for teaching posts on a short, one to two year, basis. There should also be follow-up services for the purpose of keeping an eye on foreign students' welfare.

Efforts should be made either to resolve the problem of double taxation, or at least some efforts made to warn research workers or teachers undertaking several years research or teaching abroad of the risk.

The aim has been to promote freedom of movement between tertiary teaching or research institutions by improving the flow of information and reducing legal, administrative or financial obstacles in the spirit of Resolution II of the seventh session of the Standing Conference.

Achievements have included the production of a European Handbook for Students covering member states which are not part of the E.E.C., as a companion volume of the E.E.C. Handbook already described on p.137 above. Progress has been made towards the development of a European network of national information centres on the equivalence of university qualifications and on academic mobility. There has also been an expansion of the Council of Europe's Higher Education Scholarship Scheme. These scholarships are reserved for post-graduate students and young research workers from member states of the C.C.C. and in 1980-1981 there were some seventy-one scholarships available for study and research in Austria, France, West Germany, Greece, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and Turkey.

Another achievement has been the analysis of major policy issues in tertiary education, the aim being to provide ministries and academic authorities with studies and analyses relevant to their major concerns. Among the types under study at present are the reform and development of tertiary education in Southern Europe; the tasks and legal status of student organisations; the role of research in tertiary education; and employment and training prospects for graduates.

But the major innovation in this period has been development of a European programme of post-graduate training, designed to encourage tertiary and research institutions to improve their curricula, using

material prepared at European workshops and which has been tested for interaction between students, teachers, researchers and representatives of professional groups. More than two hundred institutions have been involved in the implementation of this programme, including courses on

1. Law - the teaching of human rights in medical faculties.
2. Humanities - European relations in cultural life of the eighteenth century, and multi-cultural studies.
3. Protection of the cultural heritage - where special attention is paid to scientific techniques in archaeology, and protection of the underwater cultural heritage.
4. Health - the advancement of science in this field, including a section devoted to health aspects of natural disasters.
5. Earth Sciences - where activities focus on the management of natural resources, and
6. Energy - particularly the finding of new sources less damaging to the natural environment, and the conservation of available resources.

The Council for Cultural Co-operation has also recognised, however, that formal education is not the only transmitter and enricher of culture. It has also sought to provide encouragement to organisations specifically concerned with preserving our historic European culture, and to provide financial aid and incentives to the creative artists of all media, who out of their creativity provide for the on-going generation and development of our culture, which would otherwise be barren - a fossil from the past. Finally, it has striven to encourage the less-creative majority to patronise, or at least appreciate, the glories of our European culture, past and present.

To provide a kind of "Think-tank", the C.C.C. convened its first Conference of European Ministers concerned with Cultural Affairs in

Oslo in June 1976. The conference adopted resolutions in the following eight priority areas; the challenge to cultural policy imposed by our changing society; cultural policy as an instrument for improving the quality of life in town and country communities; culture and the child; fostering of artistic creation; European cultural co-operation; artistic dissemination; dissemination of information; and the problem for European culture arising from the presence of migrant workers. In this conference a new spirit was in evidence, for, instead of concerning itself merely with the problems of popularising the Arts it called for "Cultural Democracy" - moves towards the removal of those socio-economic obstables which bar the way to improving the quality of life, and enriching the lives of the majority of people, by helping them to free themselves from the passive consumption of the mass media, the stultifying cultural effects of commercialism, and a temptation to use cultural interests as a form of escape from harsh social realities.

At Athens, on the occasion of the second Conference of European Ministers responsible for Cultural Affairs dated October 1978, the seven priorities identified included the need for a European Charter to "proclaim and protect the past and present cultural identity of Europe". (1) which was referred to the C.C.C. for further investigation. Other subjects involved included regional structures and planning; cultural industries; the future of European cultural co-operation; migrant workers; the European Archaeological Heritage Year; and the planning for the next conference, which was held in Luxembourg in May 1981, with the theme "The role of cultural aims in social and economic development". This conference explicitly rejected the view of social

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1. Report of the Third Conference of European Ministers responsible for Cultural Affairs, "European Cultural Co-operation : Achievements and Prospects", published by the Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1981, p.46.

development as being based solely upon "economic and quantitative considerations", preferring to see it as also determined "by the desire for a qualitatively better life, embracing cultural values".(1) This conference accordingly put forward the following objectives for the future work of the C.C.C., arguing that the interaction between the concepts of permanent education and cultural democracy should be developed and deepened; that the European cultural identity of the future should be defined and the cultural rights of the individual should also be defined; that intercultural dialogue, especially with developing countries, should be encouraged; that cultural aims of development should take precedence over socio-economic considerations; that in the development of Europe greater emphasis should be placed upon the Europe of citizens than upon that of status, with the C.C.C. taking the lead - "challenging, questioning, providing a forum for ideas and experience"; (2) that artists and creative people should be integrated into European society for its greater enrichment.

To these ends the proposed "Cultural Charter" should be used to establish a "European cultural space" in which all the objectives listed above have been implemented; study should be undertaken into the cultural use of "Telematics" - computer-linked, automated services and communications - the media, and the Culture Industries; research should also be encouraged into how cultural development can be co-ordinated at the European level, and how more can be done to help the "culturally-disadvantaged" - children, old people and immigrants, racial minorities, to help them to find cultural enrichment and expression.

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1. Report of the Third Conference of European Ministers responsible for Cultural Affairs, "European Cultural Co-operation : Achievements and Prospects", published by the Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1981, p.47.

2. Ibid., p.61.

The conference submitted its Draft Resolution Number I on European cultural co-operation to the European Ministers responsible for Cultural Affairs for their possible political implementation.

Yet another cultural initiative of the Council of Europe has been its Cultural Identity Card. This can be applied for at the national level by certain categories of individual - including teachers, at both secondary and tertiary levels, librarians, architects, museum staff, archivists, painters, musicians, authors, administrators, and students in higher education wishing to study or research abroad, etc., and entitles the holder to free or low-cost admission to various libraries, theatres, ancient monuments, castles, art galleries, university facilities, etc.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) grew out of the older Organisation for European Economic Recovery which had been set up in March 1948 to administer Marshall Aid, and was reconstituted in its present form in 1960. It is a consultative and co-ordinating organisation with the primary aim of "promoting intergovernmental co-operation in matters relevant to economic and social policy, on the basic premises that, firstly, a high degree of international economic interdependence is beneficial for economic growth and social progress, and secondly, that intergovernmental co-operation amongst friendly market-oriented countries can help solve their common problems. Its members include twenty-four countries, the ten members of the Community, nine other European countries - Iceland, Norway, Finland, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Austria, Turkey and as a special status member, Yugoslavia, and five non-European powers - Canada, U.S.A., Japan, Australia and New Zealand. Accordingly, the O.E.C.D. is interested in education in so far as "economic development" must ultimately depend upon the availability of effective management, the support services provided by scientific and technological staff, and

a skilled and competent workforce, and that the provision of these is, ultimately, a concern of education. Consequently, amongst its many committees dealing with such matters as macro-economic problems, development co-operation, industry, agriculture and fisheries, trade, energy, manpower and social affairs, science, environment, and the various aspects of finance and fiscal policy - there is also one on education. The Education Committee, established in 1970, is concerned with "comparison and analysis of current and future policies in member countries" because of the implications such policies may have for future enployment prospects. There is also a small programme on educational building (P.E.B.) set up in 1972 to facilitate exchange of experience and information on educational building but which only accounts for £150,000 of which the U.K. contributes £55,000 (about 25% of the O.E.C.D's educational budget, or roughly 4½% of its total budget). The P.E.B. is answerable to the Education Committee.

In 1967 the O.E.C.D. set up its "Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (C.E.R.I.). Like its parent body the O.E.C.D., C.E.R.I. has its headquarters in Paris and a membership of twenty-four, but it has a separate budget made up of £1.09 million - made up of £840,000 from members' subscriptions, and the balance of £250,000 from grants and services. To this budget the U.K. contributes £55,000. The functions of O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. include the promotion of research and development activities in education, pilot schemes for experiment into the introduction and testing of innovations, and co-operation between member countries. It is controlled by a governing board made up of representatives from each of the member states.(1)

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1. "European Educational Co-operation and the U.K.", DES., October 1979, Part I, p.5.

According to the Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education, "European Co-operation in Education", of June 1981,(1) the Education Committee holds a mandate "to evaluate prospects and policies for educational growth and development in order to meet social and economic objectives, taking into account the need for optimal allocation and efficient management of the total resources for education; (and) to exchange information and promote international co-operation on the problems identified ... above", while C.E.R.I. also holds a mandate "to promote and support the development of research activities in education and undertake such research activities where appropriate; to promote and support pilot experiments with a view to introducing and testing innovations in the educational system; (and) to promote the development of co-operation between member countries in the field of educational research and innovation".

General policy and planning is the concern of the Education Committee. It has paid considerable attention to the social and economic impact of education, disparities in educational participation brought about by socio-economic inequalities and how these can be eradicated, and the particular problems of extending educational and employment opportunities for women. Its earlier research programme on education in sparsely populated areas, completed in 1981, has been succeeded by a programme under the auspices of C.E.R.I. concerned with investigating the role education can play in local social and economic development.

The Education Committee also undertakes reviews of the educational policies maintained in various member countries, and attempts to make appraisals of their value. In 1980 the report, "Educational planning; An Historical Overview of O.E.C.D. Work", was published. At a second

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1. Report of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, "European Co-operation on Education", meeting for its 12th Session in Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, M ED-12-7, p.24.

meeting of national representatives and experts convened during the summer of 1980, national progress reports on educational planning were read and compared, and key issues such as redeployment of educational resources, perspective analysis of educational development with special reference to employment prospects, new relationships between research and planning, and innovative approaches to educational planning were highlighted. A further general report, "Reappraisal of Educational Planning" and an analytical report, "Resource Redeployment in Education" followed as a consequence. Work on statistics resulted in the publication of "The Educational Statistics of O.E.C.D. Countries" in 1981. The O.E.C.D. Education Committee, the Secretariats of U.N.E.S.C.O. and the Statistical Office of the European Communities, have agreed to adopt the International Standard Classification of Education (I.S.C.E.D.) in order to reduce the cost of compiling statistical data and ease statistical comparison. There are plans to develop, in close collaboration with national educational authorities, internationally comparable stock and flow data on teachers.

Between 1977 and 1980 O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. was engaged in data collection and analysis of available information on four main issues relating to early childhood, these being identified as the co-ordination and integration of child services; social management and participation; day care and the production and disemination of information about children. This culminated in a general report on the information secured, which in turn was used by the intergovernmental conference(1) as its main background document. The conference focussed on the following main areas -

1. "Demographic aspects - trends and changes in family organisation and household structures:

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1. Report on the Intergovernmental Conference: "Policies for Early Childhood" dated March 1980, O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. (1981)

2. Trends and problems in the production and dissemination of knowledge about children:

3. Costs and funding of services for children:

4. Policies for the future; priorities and instruments.

Close liaison was maintained with the organisers of the "International Year of the Child" (1979) and the Secretariat of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of the European Ministers of Education, so as to ensure that the O.E.C.D. experience would be taken account of in planning the 12th Session of the Standing Conference when it was held in 1981.(1)

A Steering Group of national representatives has been engaged in building up a comparative study of national responses to changing needs in the compulsory secondary education sector. Their final report, in two parts - including a quantitative analysis of developments in compulsory schooling over the period since about 1965, based upon the national documents and statistical tables, and intended to trace and quantify overall policy trends, but also the overall objectives and policies, school organisation, curriculum and practise, - as well as control and management - was completed, and discussed in final draft form by the Steering Group, in 1980.

In 1981 the Education Committee met to discuss the report prior to its publication.

Another area of concern to the O.E.C.D., as it is to the E.E.C. and the C.C.C., has been the problem of youth and the transition from school to adult work and life. Following a high level conference on the employment of young people in 1977, a special O.E.C.D. action

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1. Report of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, "European Co-operation on Education", meeting for its 12th Session in Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, M ED-12-7.

programme on "Young people and work" was set up, and the results were published in 1980.(1) This included an examination of youth employment policies in Denmark, Germany and U.S.A., and, at a special review meeting held in December 1980, the possible roles of vocational education and training in improving the employment prospects of young people were considered. In 1980 C.E.R.I. made a special study of the Youth Guarantee Policy as it operates in several member states, to find out how it operates in practice.

C.E.R.I. has also sought to find out what young people themselves feel about the various measures designed to help them during the transition from school to work - in terms of the school curriculum, guidance and counselling provisions, and opportunities for work experience. An advisory group has aided in the compilation of a general report - based upon national contributions, and upon research analysis by experts, and entitled "Educational Responses to the changing needs of youth".(2)

The Education Committee has, in addition, undertaken an assessment of the measures undertaken by member countries to facilitate the transition from school to work, and discussed such issues as the competences needed in working life, measures which can be taken to promote labour mobility, the contribution made by work experience, instruction in school about the world of work, initial vocational education in school, and the training of the unemployed and those which it is difficult to employ.

In December 1979 a conference of national representatives and experts met to discuss public policies directed towards educational and employment counselling, and how best to modify counselling services in

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1. "Young Unemployment: the cause and consequences", O.E.C.D., 1980.

2. General Report, "Educational Responses to Changing Needs of Youth", O.E.C.D., 1981.

the light of new trends in the labour market, and in vocational education and services. A special working party of the Education Committee subsequently reviewed the overall future policies for vocational education and training.

O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. has also organised a programme concerning "Special Education and the Handicapped". In the first phase of this project, concerned with future provisions for the handicapped adolescent at school; in transition to further education, or work; and at work - "good practices" and current issues in selected countries are identified. The Progress Report for this first phase was published at the end of 1979. In the second phase completed in 1981 the various research projects and the national contributions were consolidated into two general reports - "The Integration of Handicapped Adolescents in ordinary schools", and "Transition of Handicapped Adolescents from School to Work". Associated studies of a specialised nature, also published in 1981, have included "Alternatives to work for Severely Handicapped Persons" and a number of national studies concerning the integration of handicapped people into schools or work in Italy, Yugoslavia, The U.K., U.S.A., Japan and Sweden. National seminars have been held in France, the U.K., Sweden, U.S.A., Japan and New Zealand to encourage these developments.

As regards the continuing education of school personnel, C.E.R.I. originally organised a programme of studies, conferences, and linked national research development projects, exploring aspects of the changing roles required of I.N.S.E.T. (In-service education for teachers). The six specific themes considered included - adult-learning theories; school-based learning; evaluation of I.N.S.E.T. programmes; new teaching materials; the role and training of teachers' training personnel; and the cost and effective use of educational resources.

Synthesis Reports were compiled on each of these themes, and in addition a general report to bring together their implications for overall I.N.S.E.T. policy. The final results were employed to provide the basis for discussion at an international conference held in October 1980 on policies for the in-service training of teachers, and where the four discussion points were school-based learning as a strategy for educational change;the adaptation of content and methods; development of support structures for schools; and the cost, financing and evaluation of education.(1) In the light of the conclusions arrived at through the conference, a revised version of the report was published in 1981 intended to provide possible strategies for educational reform in the period ahead.

As regards Higher Education, O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. has undertaken a survey based upon about one hundred institutions in twenty-two countries, to clarify the relationships between Higher Education and the Community. Its findings were to provide the basis for discussion at a subsequent conference held in February 1980,(2) where the contributions from individual countries and educational experts were organised around the following themes:- an analysis of Community needs; the procedures for responding to such needs; mechanism for promoting inter-relationships between Higher Education and the Community; and the consequences of the above for the functioning of both.

A co-operative programme in which over one hundred Higher Educational institutions have participated, dealing with research, training and information exchange aspects of management is still continuing, and a survey of university management in Europe was published in 1980.

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1. Report of Conference: "Policies for the In-Service Training of Teachers" O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I., 1980.

2. Report of Conference: "Higher Education and the Community: New Partnerships and Interaction", O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I., February 1980.

The Education Committee organised a conference, "Policies for Higher Education" at intergovernmental level in 1981, where four main issues were discussed.(1) These included policies on student access and admissions; for the overall financing, and the redeployment of resources for the development of non-formal and short courses; for new patterns of authority; and for exploring to reach a new relationship between Higher Education and the world of work, all such adaptations being occasioned by the changing needs, and socio-economic conditions, of modern society.

O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I. is also maintaining a research programme concerned with education and training facilities available to adults, and the moves towards the concepts of recurrent and continuous education, particularly as regards growth of the citizens' deferred rights to education, factors affecting public participation, and the influence of the work environment.

Although all the various activities described above have not been specifically directed towards European unity through education, it is clear upon reflection that anything which promotes international co-ordination of educational planning in the light of common socio-economic pressures and needs at the European level, must, ipse facto, operate towards harmonisation and integration, both within the European education systems themselves, but also at the wider level of the other European economic and social institutions.

For many years now, all the principal international organisations - those so far described in this chapter - have had reciprocal agreements under which it has been agreed to work together in the common purpose of European unity, but always with the proviso that no body should be

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1. Report of Conference: "Policies for Higher Education", Education Committee of the O.E.C.D., September 1981.

obliged to abandon any part of its educational programme for fear of duplication on the grounds that, in any case, their individual approaches differed. Of late, however, there has been "evidence of a new impulse to improve co-ordination of programmes, and indeed the work involved in contributing to the present report(1) should be mentioned and appreciated in that context as a tangible gesture".

Progress towards that growing co-operation has become a greater priority in recent years, however, as the educational allocations have been cut back in line with the "strictly limited budgets available to international organisations" to cover all their activities, obliging them "to identify and develop the specific contribution in the education sector appropriate to that organisation's larger context".(2)

Since 1979 there have been evidences of increased "bi-lateral co-ordination between organisations", including exchanges of documentation, the invitation of observers to one anothers' meetings, and the summoning of the Standing Conference of European Ministers to Lisbon to discuss European co-operation on education itself, in 1981. At this meeting it was further recommended that co-operation should be carried further, through the development of "multi-lateral meetings to discuss subjects where several organisations are working in the same area ... e.g. pre-school education, preparation for work, migrants' education, and education for international understanding", all spheres in which, as already noted, all the international organisations have become deeply involved.(3)

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1. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education: "European Co-operation on Education", activities of U.N.E.S.C.O., O.E.C.D., The Council of Europe, The European Community, and the Nordic Council of Ministers, with an introduction by Mr. Leo Leitner, M ED-12-7, 12th Session held in Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, p.1, paragraph 1.3.
2. Ibid., p.6, paragraphs 5.1 and 5.2.
3. Ibid., p.6, paragraph 5.3.

In addition to these major policy-forming international institutions - which co-ordinate their contributions by reporting on their work to the Permanent Committee of European Ministers of Education, whose senior officials, in turn, keep in close contact with each body - evaluating what has already been done, making their proposals for future development and reporting on what has been recommended to their respective national educational authorities, there are also those international and national non-teaching educational institutions which make their contributions in more specialised fields.

The European Association of Teachers (E.A.T.), or to give it its more universally-acceptable Swiss nomenclature - Association Européene Des Enseignments (A.E.D.E.) was founded in Paris in 1956 and, like so many international organisations - has its headquarters in Geneva. The founding members were French and German professeurs who were resolved to take effective action to develop a sense of European citizenship in their students. They were convinced that a united Europe could not be set up unless its peoples could first be inspired by European consciousness which must begin at school level through the enthusiastic activities of like-minded teachers imbued with the European ideal. Within a decade of its foundation thirty thousand teachers from all disciplines and teaching at all levels, all of whom shared a common will for the unification of Europe, had rallied to the association's call. Today there are indeed fourteen national sections of the A.E.D.E. - including those of Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Italy, Malta, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and West Germany.

The organisation stages a Triennial Congress one of whose duties is to elect the European officers of the Association. These officers, plus the representatives put forward by each of the national sections,

go to make up the European Committee and its executive. The European Committee meets at least once a year to discuss problems which have arisen, plan a programme for the ensuing year, and handle the association's financial affairs.

In their brochure the E.A.T. observes:-

> "A new community is developing and it is vitally necessary that we should equip young people to play their part in it as free men and women ... Within Europe the way of life and the respect of freedom which have characterised its people must be preserved. In a wider context Europe must be able to help shape events beyond its borders. But to preserve its identity and play a full role in the world the rivalries and quarrels of the past must be forgotten. Our aim therefore is dynamic ... to bring into consciousness those values in Europe which are always and everywhere worthwhile ... to give (young people) the knowledge and the insight which will enable them to play their part fully".(1)

In order to help teachers to become better informed about the culture of Europe, the various moves towards European integration already undertaken and the obstacles which lie ahead; and in order to equip teachers in their task of passing on their knowledge and concern to students and pupils who represent the next generation of Europeans, the A.E.D.E. seeks to reach the teachers and their charges in a number of different ways, including the organisation of conferences, and the production of a whole range of publications.

The E.A.T./U.K., established in 1962, has organised a whole variety of teachers' conferences dealing, in the past few years alone, with such topics as "Teacher Training Trends in Europe"; "The Teaching of European Studies"; "Pupil and Teacher Exchanges in Europe"; "Europe in the Curriculum"; "Relations between Schools and Industry in the European Context"; International Aspects of the European Dimension"; "Europe for all - Lets begin in the Primary School"; "The European Dimension in Secondary School Teaching"; "Teacher Study visits to other

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1. Leaflet: "Why a European Association of Teachers?" General Secretariat, A.E.D.E., Geneva, p.2.

European Countries - a resource for teaching about Europe"; and "Equivalence in examinations". There have also been many Sixth Form Conferences held, and in addition to this the E.A.T./U.K. has helped organise short study tours for teachers wishing to examine other European educational systems at first hand, and for parties of school children wishing to visit the various European institutions.

Publications include specialised reports, and in the case of the E.A.T./U.K., an annual journal - The European Teacher, a quarterly newsletter and a Schools Euro-news Sheet. Examples of Specialised reports published by the U.K. Section recently include "European Studies - Past, Present, Future", 1981, and "Relations between Schools and Industry in the European Context", published in the same year. "The European Teacher", which usually comes out each October, consists of about 36 pages containing useful articles on a variety of European topics, several of which have been authored by mainland Europeans. This demonstrates the truly European character of the A.E.D.E., which currently has fourteen national sections. The quarterly newsletter contains not only items of news, and intimations of future events, but also useful synopses of talks, letters, reports, and political statements published elsewhere which might not otherwise come to the attention of members. Finally, the Euro-news Sheet for schools, which has been published bi-ennially since June 1980, includes letters from young Europeans in other countries, puzzles, quiz contests, interesting articles and items of news.

The activities described above relate only to the directly educative functions of the E.A.T./U.K. Perhaps more important have been activities conducted outside the public gaze, for the A.E.D.E. enjoys consultative status with the Council of Europe and the Community, while the E.A.T./U.K. is also recognised by the Department of Science and the

British Foreign Office. Only recently, "The E.A.T./U.K., (which) represents teachers of European studies on the Council of Subject Teaching Associations, or C.O.S.T.A., (was asked) in this capacity, ... to give the Association reactions to Sir Keith Joseph's statement on the new 16+ examination"(1)

It was also the achievement of the E.A.T./U.K. to get their proposed Mode 3 C.S.E. Examination in European Studies adopted by the Metropolitan Regional Examination Board, so that the first students were able to sit this examination in 1968. Since then a number of other C.S.E. European Studies syllabuses have been developed, as well as two G.C.E. O/A level syllabuses - those of the A.E.B. and London. Things have progressed a long way since 1968. To give examples from only two C.S.E. Courses, in 1980 the West Midlands Regional Examination Board C.S.E. Mode I European Studies with a language component was entered for by 200 candidates, while that without a language component drew 500 students. The East Anglia C.S.E. Mode I without a language component was sat by 241 candidates from 16 schools. Similarly, in 1981 the A.E.B. G.C.E. O/A European Studies Course was studied by 501 candidates in 42 schools, while its London counterpart attracted 270 candidates in 27 schools and 4 colleges of further education.

In 1974 the A.E.D.E. joined the European School's Day Association, an organisation established in 1953 aiming to arouse the interests of young people of school age in European affairs and the essential cultural unity of Europe through annual competition in art and written work, and the Campaign for Civic Education, to set up a "Centre for European Education" (C.E.E.) with its headquarters in Brussels. Initially, help was forthcoming from the E.E.C., the Council of Europe, The European Cultural Fund, as well as from the twelve member countries

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1. Newsletter of the European Association of Teachers (U.K.) No. 44, June 1982.

of the European School's Day Organisation itself - Austria, Belgium, France, West Germany, Greece, Italy, Eire, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the U.K. Various national committees of the C.E.E. subsequently grew up, namely those of the U.K., the Netherlands, West Germany and France. In 1982, however, the Brussels headquarters was closed down, and today, while its national committees continue to operate, the A.E.D.E. has reverted to an independent existence, and the essay competition is now administered by the Council of Europe. Today the C.E.E./U.K. enjoys the sponsorship of the E.E.C. and the D.E.S., whereas the parent body from which it sprang - the E.A.T./U.K., remains largely dependent upon the voluntary contributions of the teaching profession, a situation which does not appear to exist in other national sections of the association.

The European Cultural Foundation, set up in 1954, is a well-known financial trust operating from Amsterdam where it receives its income from U.N.E.S.C.O., the E.E.C., The Ford Foundation, and the governments of Belgium, France, Spain and West Germany. Its stated aims are to "promote cultural, scientific, and educational activities of multi-national character and European inspiration". Projects, to win its support, must be designed to increase awareness of the European Dimension and involve at least three European nations in collaboration, and a wide range of projects have already been supported.

The E.C.F. has done much towards making possible the work of other international organisations through the financial support it has extended to them. Possibly its most prestigious patronage was extended to Plan Europe 2000, a research team which, under the auspices of the Institute of Education of the University of Paris between 1968 and 1975, worked upon the co-ordination and uniting "in a single venture, of a number of interdisciplinary research programmes centred on the theme of education

in the twenty-first century",(1) and which has culminated in the publication of a number of research studies including - "The Future is tomorrow - seventeen perspective studies" (1972), "Education without frontiers", Edited by Gabriel Fragnière (1976), and Peter Hall's "Europe 2000" (1977).

The E.C.F. has, moreover, helped fund such projects as the ill-starred C.E.E. and the "Europe in the School" Project (1980) in which educational organisations in the U.K., France, West Germany, The Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark and Italy all collaborated. Furthermore it has given grants to research institutes, not only in Paris as described, but also in Bonn, Madrid and London. Finally, it has also provided support for short-term projects such as a European Poetry Festival in Belgium and a French magazine devoted to "European history and ideas".

Other funds designed to support projects working towards European integration include the Kreyssig Fund, administered by the European Commission, which was set up under a European parliamentary resolution of 1959 "to promote information on the European Communities", notably by "developing the education of young people in the European spirit". To this end, grants are made to all kinds of projects operating through school, or out of school activities, to reach children, young people or adults in education. Resources from the fund has been allocated to help with curricular research, to provide for the publication of the "European Documentation - Schools Series" - designed to provide teachers with basic information about European Community policies and about economic and social life in the member states, and in the production of a range of visual aids to help teachers invest their subjects with a European dimension. The C.E.E. and the "Europe in the Schools" Project

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1. Henri Janne, Chairman of the Scientific Committee, Plan Europe 2000, in his preface to "Education without frontiers". Duckworth, 1976, p.XI.

have been beneficiaries of this fund too.

There is also the European Educational Research Trust, in London, a charitable trust which has as its main objective - the "Promotion of education by the advancement of schemes for the teaching and study of the history, geography, science, art, literature, and culture of the countries of Europe, chiefly Western Europe, with emphasis on the exchange of young people in the 18-35 age group". This trust helps supply lecturers and speakers for all kinds of meetings and helps young people visit the European Institutions, attend International Conferences, and participate in the meetings of European Youth Organisations. Although each such organisation may differ in its function from the international institutions which works directly for the European cause, and which were the subject of the earlier part of this chapter, they are no less essential to the maintenance of the progress towards European unity, since official international and national resources available to finance the cause are proving wholly inadequate to the task.

This group of organisations stands apart from the others mentioned, yet it is critical to the maintenance of the services provided by many of the others throughout Europe, since governmental resources and funds raised nationally often prove inadequate to the task required of them.

Finally, there are several national organisations with international aspirations in the various European countries operating at the non-teaching level, and concerned with researching and supplying up-to-date information and audio-visual aids to schools for the promotion of European consciousness in their pupils, or in promoting curricular reform

to provide scope for a greater emphasis upon European studies or a European dimension in school subjects for teachers in training or in schools.

The organisation for this kind of work in the United Kingdom is the Sussex European Research Centre, founded in 1978 and which grew out of the older Schools' Information Unit of the University of Sussex in Brighton, established in 1965. The Centre was designed to serve as a national clearing house for ideas and services to teachers of European Studies in the U.K. but it has subsequently become deeply involved in curricular development and the establishment of G.C.E. and C.S.E. Examinations in European Studies. Publications designed to help the teacher of European Studies, or seeking to develop a European dimension in an existing school subject, have included a "Resource handbook for teaching about Europe", and other books entitled "The European Dimension in the Curriculum", "Eastern European Studies in the Secondary School Curriculum", "Studies of the Common Market Countries in the Secondary School Curriculum", "Women and work in Europe", and "Europe and the Third World".

Not only has the centre made a contribution to the development of European Studies courses and examination syllabuses leading to C.S.E. and G.C.E. qualifications in European Studies, in which context two significant publications from S.E.R.C. have been "Public Examinations in European Studies at Secondary Level", Edited by Francis Lawrence and Eileen Daffern, and published by S.E.R.C. in 1978, and "Europe in the School: United Kingdom", Interim Research Report, Volume I, I. Goodson and V. McGivney, S.E.R.C. October 1980, but it has also endeavoured to extend the European dimension in established school subjects, as for example, through the Seminar "Europe through History" held in November 1981, or through the publication of "Modern Languages and Background

Studies: a European dimension" Edited by Eileen Daffern, S.E.R.C. 1981.

The S.E.R.C. takes the broad view of Europe as extending from the Atlantic to the Ural Mountains. Not only does it take this more far-reaching view, but it has not been afraid, as a matter of policy, to grapple with difficult issues such as "the role of foreign languages in the school curriculum", and "The Relationship between European Studies and Local and World Studies".

The Centre publishes a triennial journal, designed, in the words of the editor, "to provide a national forum for exchanging ideas and information about all aspects of teaching and learning about Europe". It also publishes a quarterly magazine "for the 16-19 age range which aims to provide detailed study of topics of importance to life in contemporary Europe".

The S.E.R.C. also offers advice and help to its members who may wish to arrange conferences, find speakers, plan workshops or prepare bibliographies, syllabuses, etc., as well as having a very useful library of some 4,500 volumes, to help the teacher seeking information for the teaching of European Studies or for investing another subject with a European dimension.

Finally, S.E.R.C. has developed the Teacher Fellowship Scheme, under which a number of useful projects, some of which have been funded by the Nuffield Foundation, have been undertaken in accordance with the general purpose of developing "aspects of teaching about Europe". So far, such projects have included:-

"Project work in European Studies", researched by Jane Tuppin, a Modern Language teacher in East Sussex.

"Study Pack on Yugoslavia", compiled by Gordon Kilner, of the Winstanley Sixth Form College, Wigan, Lancs.

"English Teaching and a European Dimension", by Peter Medway of Knowles Hill School, Newton Abbot, Devon.

"Tape Links", a project for the setting up of a tapelink between Bexhill, Kent, Sixth Formers and the pupils of two French Lycées, undertaken by Jennie Speakman.

The S.E.R.C. has made a valuable contribution to the role of schools in promoting European unity through tackling the problem from several angles. Thus it has not only contributed to the development of European Studies syllabuses and examinations, but helped in the development of the European dimension in the established subjects of the school curriculum. It has sought not only to reach the teacher, offering guidance on the resources, methods and information available, but also the pupils and students at both secondary and tertiary levels directly, through publication of a magazine specifically intended for the 16-19 age group, and by contributions it has made to the conferences and workshops organised by teaching institutions. Finally, it has gone out to influence the policy makers who determine the future trends of educational development.

It is particularly interesting to compare S.E.R.C. with its Dutch counterpart operating from the picturesque market town of Alkmaar - Centrum Voor europese vorming in het nederlandse onderwijs - Centre for European Education in the Netherlands, or C.E.V.N.O. Whereas S.E.R.C. was the product of a university initiative undertaken in 1965 to reach the schools. C.E.V.N.O., was established in 1961 by several politicians and teachers' union steering committees concerned that there was as yet no organisation for supplying information about Europe to schools. In its Statutes of Incorporation it was specifically laid down that the aim of the centre should be "to stimulate, amongst those giving or receiving education in the Netherlands, an awareness of the need for co-operation between the peoples of Europe, and between them and other peoples of the world, thereby reinforcing the willingness to undertake

such co-operation in all Dutch people. Furthermore, the centre was required to present its information in a form "adapted to the needs of teaching". Thus, from the very beginning the centre was dedicated to the task of promoting European consciousness, co-operation and integration in the world context, so as to avoid the dangers of Eurocentricity. It was also required that the centre should be pupil and teacher oriented, sensitive to practical classroom needs, seeking to structure its information in the most relevant, assimilable and thought-provoking form possible, and avoiding the risk of becoming academic and research-oriented. Thus the approach of the two organisations may differ in emphasis - with S.E.R.C. probably giving a greater emphasis to curricular development, while C.E.V.N.O. is primarily concerned with preparing information - not only for secondary and tertiary establishments, as does the S.E.R.C., but also for primary schools, and has placed rather less stress upon the school curriculum.

Amongst the Centre's routine activities is that of supplying information, or the names and address of sources for supplying such information, in response to enquiries from home and abroad. The centre also lends out books or documents, provides help in the planning of workshops or projects, or preliminary aid in the planning of public addresses and academic theses relating to Europe or to the work of C.E.V.N.O. itself.

In addition to such direct liaison with the public, C.E.V.N.O. has greatly stepped up its own research and publication activities in the past ten years, so that this now takes up the time of ten members of staff. All the publications have been written in response to needs expressed by teachers themselves, since there are in excess of one thousand teacher members, including Core organisation members, who, as members of one or other of the Netherland's twelve teachers' unions, are only required to pay a subscription at concessionary rates. Whereas in

1974 only five titles had so far been published, the 1980-1981 catalogue lists some seventy titles - not books only, but films, video-tapes and slide series as well, and all produced by the C.E.V.N.O. staff. In the case of the audio-visual material, C.E.V.N.O. also enjoys help from the E.E.C. Information Services. Topics covered have included such diverse subjects as environmental studies, migration, democracy, iron and steel production, agriculture, migatory birds, nuclear energy, Europe and the Third World, and so on.

Over the years C.E.V.N.O. has launched a number of on-going research projects which have subsequently given rise to the production of books, films, etc. Such projects have included - "Europe and the Third World" which was launched in 1974, and involves four part-time workers in its operation, and relates to teacher training colleges and secondary schools. The project has led to the development of curriculum models for teacher training and primary schools, the coaching of college tutors, trainee teachers and practising teachers, the development of teaching materials, etc.

Another project, begun in about 1977 and scheduled for completion after the first E.E.C. Direct Elections had been completed in September 1979, involved the researching and compiling of a whole range of books and other educational aids for teachers and pupils. By the end of 1978, with the aim not merely of arousing discussion on the elections themselves but upon the wider issues of European integration - a number of study packs for teachers and pupils, documentation on the elections, details of the programmes of the participating political parties, the pros and cons on the elections, had been published. Staff had been able to publish articles in educational journals and newspapers, deliver broadcasts, and address womens' organisations, teachers, school children and young farmers' groups.

Other projects have included collaboration in the "Europe in the School" project with organisations in West Germany, France, Belgium, Sweden and the U.K., which involved the devising and evaluation of school projects and materials on European integration, as well as research into curricular development. Yet another project has been C.E.V.N.O's efforts to draw attention to the plight of Europe's poor marginal development regions, including a study of the Mezzogiorni - South Italy - begun in 1977 in collaboration with the National Institute for Curricular Reform (S.I.O.). One product of that scheme was a course, "Calabria Mia", which was developed out of a school project undertaken by the girls of the Intermediate Domestic Science School (M.H.N.O.) in Sneek, Northern Holland. C.E.V.N.O. has also collaborated with S.I.O. in devising strategies by which a "Mondial dimension" could be introduced into the professional courses of teachers in training, working in collaboration with five teachers' colleges in Northern Holland. As early as 1977 Henk Oonk, of C.E.V.N.O., in his "European Dimension in Education", attempted to assess the value given to that dimension in Dutch and English textbooks, and based his assessment of Dutch textbooks on an inventory attempted by C.E.V.N.O. previously, in 1975.(1) He went on to express the hope that, in future, "S.I.O. would give a hand to C.E.V.N.O."(2) to attempt a fuller evaluation of what had been achieved in putting over the European Dimension.

C.E.V.N.O. also publishes a bulletin five times per annum to provide teachers with useful information on current developments in the European scene. It also incorporates a pupils' supplement called Euroknipsels - Euro-cuttings, aiming in alternative editions to serve first the ten to

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1. Henk Oonk, European Dimension in Education: a comparative study of the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, C.E.V.N.O., November 1977, pp.26-30.

2. Ibid., paragraph 4.6, Evaluation, p.40.

fourteen year readership, then the over fourteens, and inviting contributions from its young readers.

During 1979 the bulletin covered such subjects as the European Elections, the Lomé Convention, new Euro-African relations, freedom of European workers to work where they choose, Mafia corruption in Southern Italy, and the life of a South Italian woman. One whole issue in late 1980 was given over to an assessment of Greece on the eve of her accession to European Community.

In West Germany the counterpart of S.E.R.C. and C.E.V.N.O. in the Deutscher Rat der Europaischen Bewegung which operates from the Zentrum fur Europaische Bildung in Bonn, while in France there is the Centre Regional de Documentation Pedagogique in Strasbourg.

So far only two organisations have managed to establish internationally-recognised academic examinations in Europe for the purpose of promoting a greater harmony between the European Educational systems, and through this process to advance the cause of labour mobility in Europe.

These include the European Economic Community which has developed the European Baccalaureat as the final examination for the pupils of its nine European Schools which has developed since 1958, and the International Baccalaureat Office set up in Geneva in 1979, which has developed its own distinctive alternative. Both of these examinations are acceptable for university entry throughout the European Community. In addition the European Baccalaureat has won for itself acceptability beyond the confines of the Community in Austria, Switzerland - even as far afield as U.S.A., while as for the International Baccalaureat, it is also acceptable in some thirty three countries scattered across the world. These Examinations, and the international schools which prepare pupils for them, are the subject of the subsequent Chapter 12.

With regard to international schools and colleges, some are specifically oriented towards a united Europe, whilst others have grown up to serve the ideal of a broader internationalism. However, in so far as such schools operate within the continent of Europe they make a contribution to the same cause, and so merit a consideration here.

Foremost amongst the European educational establishments must be the College d'Europe, founded in Bruges, in response to initiatives taken by the International Cultural Section of the European Movement presided over by the Spanish philosopher Don Salvador de Madariaga on the one hand, and a committee of Bruges citizens on the other. In 1948, a conference conducted in the Hague had been attended by Denis de Rougemont, pioneer European federalist, who subsequently founded his own Centre Europeenne de la culture in Switzerland, and de Madariaga, then a professor of Spanish Studies at Oxford University, whose wish was to establish a European College on similar lines to those at Oxford and Cambridge. When plans had been approved for the new college, the choice of Bruges was as a consequence of an initiative by Father Antoine Verleye, a Catholic priest and a national delegate to the same conference, who secured the support of both Belgian Government and the Communal Council in Bruges for the scheme.

From the beginning the new college was to enjoy international acclaim and support. Fifty percent of its budget was contributed by the Belgian Government, the other fifty percent by joint contributions from France, West Germany, the U.K., Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the Community and the town of Bruges. The Board of Governors includes representatives from each of the supporting governments and the other bodies.

The first Rector of this new post-graduate college was Henri Brugmans, eminent Dutch historian and a pioneer European federalist.

The broad aim of the college is "former des Europeans", but in 1958, when commemorating the first ten years of the college's existance, Brugmans formulated these aims more precisely as follows:-

First, to supply the newly-emerging Europe with civil servants, politicians, teachers and other leaders capable of bringing it to unity. Secondly, to promote the systematic and thorough study of European integration. And finally, to provide a real community life-style for a small select group, who would thus become the nucleus for a united Europe, - influential out of all proportion to their numerical strength.

During the 60s and early 70s plans began to go forward, however, for the establishment of a University of Europe, first to be sited in Florence, and later in Luxembourg. The new European University Institute of Florence finally materialised on the 5th October, 1976.

A convention dated 1972, signed initially by the representatives of the "Six", but subsequently acceded to by all joining members, it states that:-

> "... the task of the institute is to contribute to the development of the cultural and scientific heritage of Europe in its unity and diversity through activities in the fields of university teaching and research. The studies involve, moreover, the great revolutionary processes and institutions which characterise Europe in its history and development. They take into account connections with non-European cultures.
>
> This task is fulfilled by teaching and research at university level. The institute is also intended to be a place for the meeting and exchange of ideas and experience concerning questions of its fields of study and research".(1)

The university institute is funded jointly by the governments of the Community members, which each make a contribution assessed in proportion to their national incomes. An additional contribution is made by the European Commission to the research fund.

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1. Community Convention for the establishment of the European University Institute in Florence, 19th April 1972, Article 2.

In 1980 the Institute staff totalled some 68 administrative and 32 teaching staff - about one hundred in all. The teaching staff included 20 professors, 8 assistants, 1 research fellow, 1 junior research fellow, 1 advisor on computing for research purposes, and 1 publication officer. Professors and assistants are recruited for one three-year contract renewable once only. However, some continuity of staff is ensured by recruiting visiting professors from amongst those whose term of contract have expired.

The University Institute of Florence is essentially a post-graduate establishment, preparing its students by a programme of teaching seminars and research projects for the degree of Doctorate of the European Research Institute. The research is undertaken in team projects which eventually give rise to publications designed to enrich contemporary European culture with fresh knowledge, technique and philosophical insights into her problems.

The European Schools, of which there are now nine, have been established in centres related to the work of the E.E.C. and its associated bodies, and were originally intended to serve the needs of employees exclusively. The nine schools include the "Mother School" in Luxembourg - associated with the High Authority of the E.S.C.C., two schools in Brussels, one in Varese-Espra, North Italy, associated with Euratom, and others at Mol, Belgium, serving the needs of the national nuclear research centre, Bergen, Holland and Karlsruhe, West Germany, both associated with Euratom, Munich, West Germany - associated with the European Patent Organisation, and Culham, in the U.K., established to serve the children of people employed in the European JET Project. These schools are now open, however, under certain circumstances, to all children, regardless of their language, race, religion or social class, but subject to places being available.

Places are free to E.E.C. employees, but the fees charged for "non-entitled places" are very low.

All the schools are co-educational day schools, and the nine European Schools, between them, serve the needs of more than 10,000 pupils aged between four and nineteen years through the services of a teaching staff recruited from the entire Community. The aim of the European schools is to build a Europe in the minds and hearts of men alongside the Europe of treaties. When a new school is built, a parchment is concealed within its foundations expressing the purposes for which the schools have been established in the following terms:-

> "In this school, children from Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and other countries concerned to build a united Europe are to be educated together from minimum school age to university entrance level.
> Here, while all pupils will be taught their own countries' language, literature and history by teachers from those countries, they will at the same time become accustomed from childhood to speak other languages also, and absorb the combined influences of the different cultures which together make up European civilisations.
>
> Playing the same games, learning the same lessons, boys and girls of different speech and citizenship will come to know, to respect and to live in harmony with one another.
> Educated side by side, untroubled from infancy by divisive prejudices, acquainted with all that is great and good in the different cultures, it will be borne in upon them as they mature that they belong together. Without ceasing to look to their own lands with love and pride, they will become in mind Europeans, schooled and ready to complete and consolidate the work of their fathers before them to bring into being a united and thriving Europe".(1)

In addition to the true European Schools described above, there are several more or less international schools sponsored either jointly by two European governments, or by a single such government. The N.A.T.O. International Schools at St. German en Laye (1952) and

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1. "Schola Europaea ex foedere novem nationum", Prospectus of the European Schools, Office for Official publications of the European Community. July 1977.

Fontainebleau (1956), for example, are both sponsored by the French and German governments. Both schools contain French and British Sections and German and Canadian Sections at primary and secondary level, but on the other hand the schools only prepare pupils for the French Baccalauréat, which reduces them, to little more than "irregular annexes to ordinary French lycées".(1) A similar critism might also be levelled at the Sevres Lycée, established by the Staff Association of U.N.E.S.C.O. in 1981. Here, however, not only does the school teach in French and English, but prepares pupils for the Baccalauréat and for English G.C.E. Examinations. Yet another bi-national lycée is that at Saarbrucken which prepares students for entry to French and German Universities. Finally, there is in Berlin an ancient French Academy, founded as early as 1697, which continues to operate under a Franco-German administration.

There are, in addition, two instances of State Schools which have acquired a European character as a result of catering for an international clientele. In Bonn there is a gymnasium founded in 1951 which offers courses in German, French and English, while in the U.K. the Essex L.E.A. Anglo-European School at Ingatestone, established in 1973, offers a curriculum oriented towards Europe, and prepares pupils for G.C.E.s but also for the International Baccalauréat. Half its intake is local, but half is drawn from all over the county, and parents of these pupils are required to prove strong ties or associations with Europe to support their candidature.

It remains to consider more specifically international schools, which operating within Europe and serving at least in part a European clientele, are nevertheless making a contribution to the cause of

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1. Michael Knight and Robert Leach, 'International Secondary Schools', Year Book of Education 1964, Evan Bros.(1964), Section V, Chapter 2. p.447

European integration, by educating young Europeans to think beyond their national origins.

In 1951 the International School Association (I.S.A.) was established to help provide individual international schools with some security through association, beset as they so often were by financial problems or a lack of support from host nations or the nations from which their clientele was drawn. The "Year Book of Education, 1964: Education and International Life" classified international schools into "at least seven types of school", including the Common Market European Schools; International Schools sponsored by the French and German Governments; I.S.A. Member Schools with government support, I.S.A. Member Schools without government support; Schools eligible for I.S.A. Membership; Bi-national or "Overseas" Schools, and Personally-owned Profit-making Schools with an International Character.(1)

The International School of Geneva, mentioned in the previous chapter as having been founded in 1924, is in the third of these categories. Probably the main shortcoming of such schools is that its pupils are usually drawn from a limited and very privileged sector of society, mainly diplomatic and government circles. Those schools which lack that diplomatic umbrella and official governmental backing, are often under acute financial and political pressure and run the risk of ceasing to be genuine international institutions by being pushed askew either through accepting financial aid from abroad on certain conditions, or because legislation in the host country forbids its own nationals from attending - thereby restricting the school's activities to serving foreign nationals domiciled in that country. There are I.S.A. - recognised independent schools of this kind in various parts of Europe -

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1. Michael Knight and Robert Leach, 'International Secondary Schools' Year Book of Education 1964, Evans Bros (1964), Section V, Chapter 2. pp.443-457.

Belgrade, Vienna, Athens, Rome, Milan, the Hague, Zurich, and Paris - and several of them have suffered strictures of this kind.

For example, the Rome Overseas International School established in 1949 accepted financial support under U.S. Public Law 480 (U.S.A.I.D.) to help in the expansion of its facilities, but in so doing was obliged to abandon preparing candidates for the G.C.E. Examinations. Consequently, a British School was set up in Rome in 1960, reducing the original international school to something rather less than had been intended, and Italian pupils must now be included in the American Programme of the School, which, even though it devotes considerable attention to the Italian culture, has none the less suffered some distortion of the curriculum to take place.

The International School of the Hague, founded in 1955, has sought to avoid such distortions by making each national stream semi-autonomous, with financial support from the respective governments. Still, however, the Anglo-Saxon Primary School, to which Dutch and English children go, is obliged to compete with separate English and American Schools in the Hague, which weakens its recruitment disastrously. As a result, the Dutch and English pupils leave to attend national schools, while the German pupils go on to an equally thriving Secondary Department supported from Bonn.

The International School in Brussels, founded in 1951, enjoys American and British support, but the Belgian Government has devoted most of its resources to the European Schools. Consequently, at the secondary level the bias towards an American curriculum is strong. In short, in most such schools economic and political restraints prevent them achieving full international stature.

There are six international schools with secondary departments and fully eligible for I.S.A. Membership in Europe, including two in Vienna,

one in Frankfurt and another in Hamburg, West Germany, and others at Hellerup in Denmark and at Salonika in Greece.

Amongst these, the American International School in Vienna, the International School in Frankfurt and the International High School in Salonika all prepare their students for American college examination boards. However, the American International School in Vienna has also secured the recognition of the Austrian Ministry of Education for its students to go forward to Austrian universities by the development of a bi-lingual forum programme in which representatives of leading Austrian Gymnasia have been consulted. The Bernadotte Skollen in Hellerup, Denmark is free to receive 80% of its financial support from the Danish Ministry of Education on condition that it maintains academic standards approved by them, and without being subject to any pressure as regards its educational policies. Its Danish and English-speaking Sections follow the Danish custom of undertaking a minimum of examination work. The Vienna English School and the Hamburg International School both prepare students for G.C.E. Examinations. In none of these schools are pupils prepared for more than one examination board.

In addition to the various categories of school illustrated above, there remain those schools ineligible for I.S.A. Membership, many of which are small and entirely private, with questionable academic standards and social motives. Many such schools are situated in the international atmosphere of Switzerland, and only a minority of such schools prepare their pupils for university entrance.

Finally, although they form a quite distinct group, and although they are dedicated to the cause of world internationalism, the United World Colleges may in future contribute a great deal to the cause of European integration because they have plans to open new colleges near Trieste, in Italy and in West Germany. The oldest of these

international colleges, The Atlantic College, was established on the South Wales seaboard in the U.K. in 1962. The aim of the U.W.C. is to promote international understanding through education, and to use education as a means of uniting nations and races.

It is not intended to attempt any assessment of the contributions to European unity made by the international schools and colleges which have just been described. This is because the contributions of these teaching institutions are not readily comparable with those of the non-teaching ones. Whereas the work of non-teaching institutions is directed outwards into the arena of public affairs, giving their philosophical ideas a measurable impact upon politicians, administrators and the general public, in terms of their effect upon national education practice and policies; the work of the teaching institutions is directed inwards upon the teachers and the communities of pupils they seek to serve. Even the teachers themselves are unable to measure their personal success except in such superficial terms as numbers taught or successful examination candidates, and such approaches are practically meaningless in attempting to assess the effectiveness or otherwise of contributions to the European consciousness of pupils, let alone impact upon European society as a whole - the arena in which they must ultimately be assessed. It is true that a certain school or college may come to be highly acclaimed, and be emulated by other institutions, but such a value judgement is highly subjective, and may not even be deserved, since the reputations - be they good or bad - often persist long after they are no longer merited. The achievements of the international schools and colleges have therefore been reserved for consideration in Chapter 12. This chapter confines its attentions to the international organisations which were previously described.

The work of the first group of international institutions - the

E.E.C. and the Council of Europe particularly, but also the O.E.C.D., with whom education is not the primary concern - has consisted mainly in their recommendations, their experiments and pilot schemes, the resultant reports of these, and finally the conferences, seminars, and workshops by which the recommendations have been brought to the attention of politicians, educational policy-makers, administrators, teachers and students. Unfortunately, the recommendations have not always received the attention they have deserved. National governments have not been under any obligation to implement them. Possibly the experiments and pilot projects, because they have been carried out and observed by teachers and students in the countries involved, have - in so far as they have been successful - left a tangible impression behind them. By the same token, the conferences and seminars have almost certainly had an influence upon the thinking of the delegates, and perhaps the "multiplier effect" of this may be seen in the growing number of schools and higher education establishments which have introduced European Studies, or a European dimension, into their curricula. The E.E.C. and the Council of Europe have both made substantial contributions in this field, but it is reasonable to suggest that the Council of Europe, with its much more restricted mandate, has made the greater one.

What is perhaps the most encouraging portent for the future is the recent evidence of growing collaboration between the E.E.C., the Council of Europe, the O.E.C.D., U.N.E.S.C.O., and the Nordic Council of Ministers, which makes it a real possibility that in future they will develop a co-ordinated initiative for Europe, since individual approaches must inevitably become increasingly ineffectual - even irrelevant.

The A.E.D.E. and the Georg Eckert Institute for International Text-book Revision are at once very similar in origin, but very different in

their approaches to their ultimate objective. Both grew out of the initiatives of educationalists, and their work is carried on to serve the needs of teachers and taught. Whereas, however, the A.E.D.E. has adopted a variety of approaches designed to reach practising teachers and their charges, many of them complementing what the great international organisations have also been working towards, the Georg Eckert Institute has adopted a single and very distinctive function, and acquired and expertise in textbook revision which has prompted all the other major international organisations to seek collaboration with it. Whereas there is little doubt that the A.E.D.E. serves to meet the needs of its teacher members, the success of the Georg Eckert Institute cannot be readily assessible, since its achievements are inevitably only felt comulatively and in the long-term.

The European Cultural Foundation, Kreyssig Fund and European Educational Research Trust - and all similar organisations - perform an essential function, that of augmenting the essential funds - necessary if the work of the other international organisations is to be sustained and hopefully extended, at a time when official sources are "drying up" owing to the recession. Perhaps the fund which most suggests a potential source of future support which might be exploited by European institutions generally is the European Cultural Foundation. As a football pool promoting organisation, it can draw upon the vast resources the man in the street is accustomed to squander to satisfy his compulsive propensity to gamble, instead of depending upon sources such as the subscriptions of pro-European industries and individuals, or the allocations made by national governments under pressure to meet expanding liabilities from a contracting global resource.

Finally, there are the Dutch and British nationally-based research and information centres, C.E.V.N.O. and S.E.R.C. Their functions are

similar, but their approaches to their common purpose of providing support to teachers in their efforts to promote the European consciousness of their pupils are quite distinctive, and both believe that their own approach is the better one. Whereas C.E.V.N.O. concentrates on supplying appropriate teaching materials to teachers, and advocates the development of a European dimension in all the established school subjects, and curricular development relegated to an important, but secondary role, S.E.R.C. places different priorities upon each of its functions. It still lays great stress upon curricular development, particularly in the development of syllabuses for European Studies to serve the needs of various abilities of pupil at the secondary level particularly, although there is evidence that S.E.R.C. is coming to advocate a more pluralistic approach, because it has come to acknowledge that both European Studies and a European dimension in the general school subjects are approaches with distinct advantages, but also equally severe shortcomings. This controversy will form part of subsequent Chapters 8 and 12.

In conclusion, the international organisations endeavour to serve the cause of European unity in a variety of ways. Consequently, in the past there has been a considerable duplication of approaches, which has tended to increase as each organisation has diversified its operations in an attempt to maximise its impact. Now, however, financial constraints are obliging the organisations to draw closer together and complement their approaches, and to collaborate not only to achieve economies but to serve with greater effectiveness the "Grand design" they all share. Thus there is evidence that the E.E.C., the Council of Europe, and the O.E.C.D. are increasingly co-ordinating their efforts, while the Georg Eckert Institute, despite its far narrower sphere of activity, is collaborating very fully with all of them. There is similar evidence of growing co-operation between C.E.V.N.O., S.E.R.C.

and a whole number of similar though less fully developed institutions in other European countries.

Unfortunately, the entrenched powers of nationalism, with their staunch adherence to the principle of national sovereignty have been challenged but remain virtually intact. Despite the massive attrition they have been subjected to by so many international organisations, and despite evidence that a substantial and active minority of Europeans see their future as citizens of Europe, these forces of reaction continue to retard the process of European integration, disregarding the clear evidence that time is running short, and that Europe must evolve if it is to survive.

CHAPTER VI: THE CHARACTER OF A UNITED EUROPE AS ENVISAGED, AND A CONSIDERATION OF THE OBSTACLES WHICH BAR THE WAY TO ITS ACHIEVEMENT.

A truly united Europe would encompass the entire continent as defined by its physical and cultural boundaries; the Arctic Ocean in the north, the Atlantic Ocean in the west, the Sahara Desert in the south - since this arid waste, and not the Mediterranean Sea, has marked the cultural divide between Europe and Africa since Classical times, and the Ural Mountains in the east. Several of the countries of North Africa, are, by virtue of their one-time colonial relationship with France, indeed associate members of the European Community already, even though their political and economic conditions currently bar them from full membership, since they do not meet the criteria of possessing necessary levels of economic development and democratic government which would make them readily compatible with the rest of the Community. Unfortunately, too, the great ideological rift which expresses itself in profound political and socio-economic differences, also makes it quite impossible for the foreseeable future, for the U.S.S.R. to become part of any political or economic grouping which incorporates the countries of Western Europe.

The situation in the other Eastern European countries; Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, East Germany or Yugoslavia is rather less well defined. True, in common with Cuba and Mongolia, they are all members, or in the case of Yugoslavia an associated member, of COMECON - The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance - which comes under the dominant influence of the U.S.S.R. These countries accordingly come under varying levels of Russian pressure or interference in their political and economic policies, but at some time a level of dissent from Russian Communist orthodoxy has been discernible in most of them.

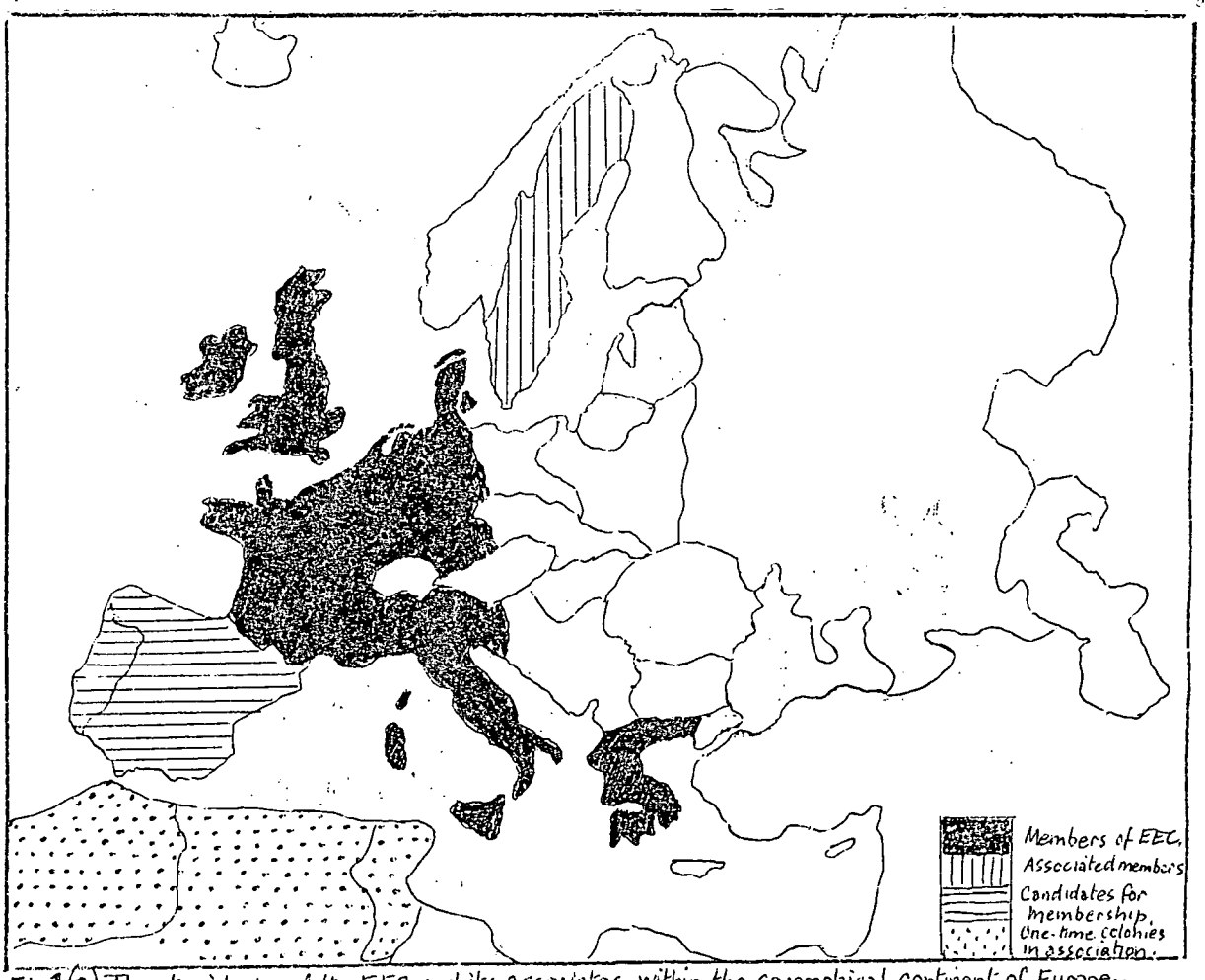

Fig. 1(a) The territories of the E.E.C. and its associates within the geographical continent of Europe.

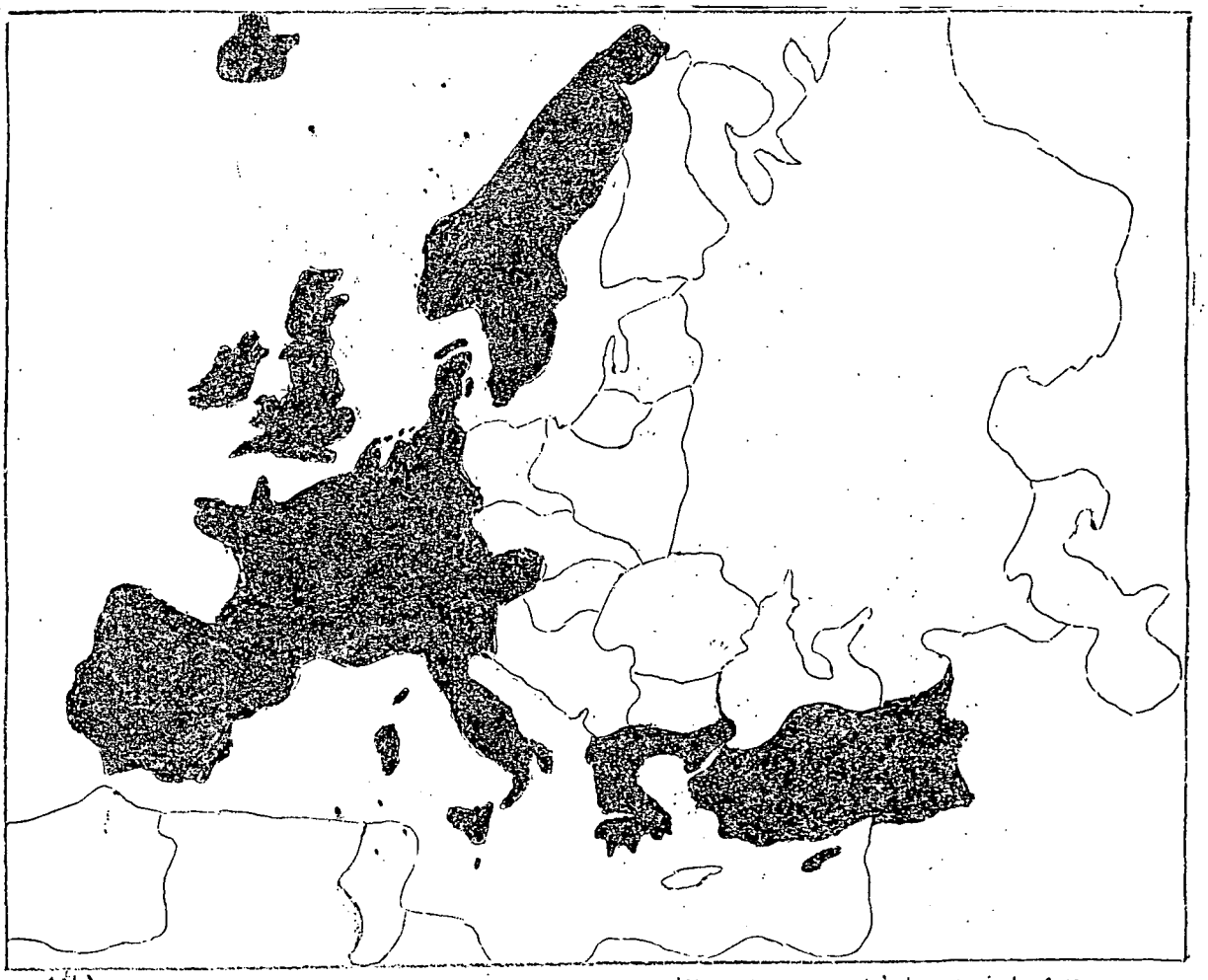

Fig. 1(b) The territories of the Council of Europe members within the geographical continent of Europe.

Finland and Yugoslavia have even shown some affinities for the capitalist West. In Poland resistance has been displayed through the Catholic Church, which has actively promoted Trades Union activity in defiance of the Communist state authorities there.

Under the circumstances it is most improbable that a United Europe will extend into North Africa or Eastern Europe to any degree - although Yugoslavia, Austria and Turkey might one day become members. Indeed, Austria and Turkey are already members of the Council of Europe, while both Turkey and Yugoslavia have been in receipt of economic guidance from the O.E.C.D. under a scheme for the economic development of the Mediterranean Region, and both have shown a level of pro-Western sympathy unusual in that quarter. However, it is clear that a future United States of Europe is likely to fall far short of the geographical continent.

It has already been observed in Chapter 5, on page 158 that the Council of Europe constitutes the largest grouping of nations in Europe, and examination of figs 1 (a) and (b) demonstrates how much further in Europe its influence extends than that of the European Economic Community. On the other hand, even though the Council has exerted a great deal of influence over the minds of Europeans, it is the Community which has been able to take decisive steps towards economic integration and even some first steps towards political integration. Furthermore, when its associated membership and candidates for membership are taken into account, the sphere of its influence, and its already considerable constitutional power makes it perfectly reasonable to regard the E.E.C. as the nucleus for the United States of Europe.

The form a United Europe initially assumes is likely to remain provisional and imcomplete for years to come, and its boundaries are unlikely to be regarded as finalised to the exclusion of the countries

beyond. Indeed, it is to be hoped that Europe will remain dynamic, avoid atrophying into a Confederated clique, and be ready when the time is ripe to provide one of several nucleii for ultimate world federation, however remote this prospect may appear for the present.

There is some justification for the argument that economic union is a prerequisite of political union. There are historical precedents in the Zollverein which predated German unification by more than half a century, and in the loose economic union first entered into by Belgium and Luxembourg as early as June 25th 1921, expanded to form Benelux with the accession of the Netherlands in 1944, and providing the nucleus for the E.C.S.C. in 1952 and the E.E.C. set up under the Rome Treaties in 1957.

Economic unions provide scope for economies of scale to producers of all kinds, and enable small sovereign states to abandon wasteful policies directed towards defensive self-sufficiency in favour of concentrating their productive energies upon those forms of production in which their country's natural endowments and cultural traditions give them a "comparative advantage" - providing in this way greater productivity and enhanced prosperity for all the members of such a union.

But economic unions also make it necessary to develop new codes of internationally-binding laws and practices to regulate the growing volume of international industrial and commercial activity they bring in their wake, which in turn necessitate the emergence of a legislature to frame them, a jurisprudence to interpret them, a judiciary to pass judgement on the basis they provide, and an executive to impose the judgement and ensure that the laws are observed. In these ways, almost imperceptably, an entire political machine is evolved. Economic union, which alone can make it in the best interests of

Europeans that they should "beat their swords into ploughshares", is therefore the essential first step towards the establishment of a united Europe. We have, in present-day Europe, several well-established associations of European sovereign states - the E.E.C., the O.E.C.D. and the Council of Europe which share a largely common membership in Western Europe, and COMECON in Eastern Europe. However, the member states, for all their verbal commitment to European integration, are still a long way from surrendering the sovereignty of their governments, and, so long as they with-hold that sovereignty - just so long will any federal government remain quite ineffective. Until a European government is strong enough to over-ride partisan national interests where that becomes necessary, and enforce a collective will upon the individual without fear of active resistance or threats of cessation, until its constitutional powers enable it to be decisive in all matters of economic purport to the European Federation as a whole, Europe is doomed to remain the group of weak and divided states it is, despite its associations.

This chapter is concerned with ascertaining what kind of Europe is required. To this end it is proposed to put forward an "anticipatory scenario" - employing a device proposed by the Delegation a l'Amenagement du Territoire et a l'Action Regionale (D.A.T.A.R.) in Paris (1975), so that, in the words of Peter Hall, starting "from a realistic desired image or images of the future, described in terms of a number of objectives to be realised"(1), the investigator can then proceed to consider what may be the main obstacle to their realisation. It will remain the task of subsequent chapters to suggest means by which such obstacles may be overcome, what has so far been achieved towards this end by formal education, and what may reasonably be undertaken in future to clear the path towards European unity.

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1. Peter Hall, Editor, "Europe 2000", European Cultural Foundation, Duckworth, (1977), p.6.

"Objectives to be realised" must include the following. First, there must be a process of political integration towards the development of federal government in a United States of Europe. This federal government needs to be strong enough to provide effective and consistent overall direction to European foreign and domestic policy, even to the point of over-riding individual state governments when this becomes necessary in the interests of Europe as a whole, yet with safeguards for the protection of local autonomy in those areas where it is better able to serve local needs and interests.

The most desirable kind of European Federation will be one which remains flexible as it grows in strength and territorial extent. It needs to be capable of maintaining a constitutional balance between a federal government strong enough to control the States, yet with State governments able to act independently in matters affecting their citizens, so as to avoid resentment because of lack of sympathy and understanding from a remote, central administration, insensitive to local circumstances, tastes and needs.

It needs also to be capable of making fine adjustments to both its political constitution, and its economic, political and social policies, so to accommodate changing circumstances and possible changes in its membership. It is notable that, despite its two centuries of existence, the American constitution is written sufficiently flexibly to permit considerable State variations in matters of law and policy, and that America has withstood the impact of sweeping changes, as well as those of accepting new members into the union throughout that period, without losing its stability or its claim of loyalty over the American people. On the other hand, because of the relative weakness of Europe's central government agencies, and the fact that member states have resisted any reform which appears to threaten their sovereignty and national interests,

the E.E.C. has been rocked by crises in its efforts towards constitutional reform, such as strengthening the European Parliament or monetary union, or change in economic policy - such as reform of the Community budget arrangements or of the Common Agricultural policy. The E.E.C. has successfully accepted new members into its association, but it has not been so successful in adapting its domestic arrangements in order to accommodate the changes in its economy such new members have occasioned.

In future the E.E.C. ought to acquire a political union strong enough for the citizens to regard the whole as of greater importance than its constituent parts. It also needs to expand its membership to embrace the geographical continent, and for the well-being of all mankind it ought not to stop there, but ought to be prepared to be submerged with any other international association in order to bring World Federal Government closer. Although this is likely to remain an unattainable ideal for the foreseeable future, it is also true that the way Europeans learn to see their Community now could colour the way they think of their international opportunities later. A partisan way of looking towards European unity ought not to be allowed to supplant narrow nationalism with a similar exclusive supranationalism. Once having broken down these narrow loyalties, they should be replaced by an internationalist outlook which views all humanity as one and looks upon any more limited loyalty than this as provisional. This ought to be reflected in the work of formal education now.

Secondly, moves towards a single fully integrated economy for Europe must involve such developments as - one rationalised and co-ordinated system of European communication - rail, road and waterway; one European - wide power grid; single integrated networks for the distribution of oil and natural gas; one co-ordinated system for water

conservation and supply; and one single authority for the integration of all European manufacturing industry - rationalised to minimise wasteful duplication of plant and production, and to maximise efficient and cost-effective utilisation of all available natural resources. As a concommittant of such an integration programme there must be provisions for fully co-ordinated education, medical and social services, with some essential consistency of provisions ensured, because this is necessary if there is to be any genuine mobility of labour - although care must be taken to safeguard the sensitivity of such services to local needs and conditions. Essential to enhanced mobility of labour, also, is the achievement of harmonious standards for academic, professional, trade and craft qualifications, not only in terms of theoretical examinations and practical tests, but also in terms of study curricula and recognition of training experience, to be recognised throughout the European Community. Until such qualifications are universally acceptable and transferable throughout Europe, there can be no complete labour mobility and an integrated economy cannot be implemented. Finally, Europe's federal government must be empowered to lay down guidelines for monetary and fiscal policy enforceable throughout the area of its jurisdiction, and it would greatly facilitate this task if a single European currency system were to be set up throughout the Community.

Thirdly, to create Europe "in the hearts and minds of men alongside a Europe of treaties",(1) it is necessary to promote the integration not just of governmental or economic institutions, but of the European people themselves into a single group - heterogenous in character - yet able to identify with one another. To achieve this, provisions are necessary which will enable people of all ages to find out about one anothers' social and cultural ideas, interests and activities, and to participate in them together. This can only be a spontaneous process

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.372.

if all Europeans have the open opportunity to study as, when and where they wish, to communicate freely in at least one, preferably several European languages other than their own, and to travel extensively throughout Europe, spending periods of their lives in employment or undertaking educational, recreational or social activities amongst fellow Europeans. Existing schemes might be expanded to provide for voluntary service amongst young Europeans of several races working in collaboration with one another in parts of Europe other than their own, or in the Third World, since working together in a challenging situation is a valuable integrating experience. There is no reason why similar schemes might not be linked with sabbatical leave for working adults, or organised for active retired people who still have a great deal to offer by way of professional expertise, experience and wisdom.

In Europe we are currently on the threshold of developing satellite technology capable of providing information, education, and entertainment services on a vast international scale. Its potential could also include credit transfer and face-to-face telecommunication links for business and domestic use. With such vast possibilities on the near horizon the federal government of a united Europe needs to acquire some oversight of these, as well as the more conventional mass media such as radio, television, and the press which will all experience the knock-on effects of the former. If Europe is to preserve its democratic traditions, it is at least as important that the media should be protected from control by the commercial interests as it is that they should be protected from direct government control. Rather than that they be left vulnerable to the insinuation of such influences into their policy-making bodies, it would be preferable for some constitutional protection to be set up - such as some variant of government chartered company or national corporation - to meet the needs of a democratic

United States of Europe entering an era of world-wide instantaneous communication. On the cultural front, the provision of amenities for exchanges amongst creative artists and artistic performers in all fields could help nurture a fresh Eurpean Renaissance.

Fourthly and finally, there is need to harmonise the national education systems of Europe, but not to integrate them, since education must remain sensitive to local conditions, needs and aspirations. Education has a major task to perform - to enable children and adults to make some contribution towards European integration; or at least, to cope with the political, economic, technological and social consequences of it as these affect their personal lives. Such changes only serve to accelerate the technological and social changes already going on throughout the world. Harmonisation of the educational systems of Europe should involve the entire administrative structure as well as the educational institutions themselves to make them more efficient and economical, since the cost of education has escalated throughout Europe in face of the need to expand and extend its provisions to meet the challenges of the late twentieth century.(1) However, it should also involve educational practice as well, and it is consideration of the practical roles of education, by which it is likely to exercise a profound effect upon European integration in the future, which form the subject matter of the subsequent chapters of this study.

Having identified the primary objectives through which the integration of Europe may be pursued, it is now appropriate to consider what may prove to be the obstacles to their realisation.

First, then, there are obstacles to political integration which

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, Editor, op.cit., Chapter I, especially p.15.

must be overcome. Amongst these are the ideological barriers, both those which are inimical to the very idea of internationalism itself, and those which have the effect of isolating one group of people from the others. Most serious in the former category is the sentiment of nationalism, and the pernicious concept of national sovereignty which is used to reinforce it. Unfortunately, too, national governments deliberately nurture a confusion between the nationalist cause which requires loyalty to a political unit, and the very natural sentiment of patriotism, which involves love and dedication to the land of one's birth and nurture. It has been this unfortunate determination on the part of European politicians to preserve national sovereignty, that has so delayed progress towards European integration since 1945.

On September 1946, at the University of Zurich, Winston Churchill made what appeared to be an impassioned appeal for European integration when he called for:-

> "...France and Germany to take the lead together. Great Britain and the British Commonwealth of Nations, mighty America, and I trust Soviet Russia, must be the friends and sponsors of the new Europe, and must champion its right to live. Therefore I say to you - "Let Europe arise!"(1)

Yet on careful analysis it is clear that Churchill saw Britain's place as outside such an integrated Europe, note his careful coupling of Britain, the Commonwealth, the U.S.A. and possibly Russia as "friends and sponsors of the new Europe". Indeed, years later he explicitly argued such a position in the House of Commons, for when referring to the ill-fated European Defence Council, he observed:-

> "We are not members of the E.D.C., nor do we intend to be merged in a European federal system. We are with them, but not of them".(2)

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1. Keesing's Contemporary Archives. 1946-1948, Vol.VI, p.8138.
2. Hansard, House of Commons, 5th Series, Vol. 515, Col. 883-898, 11th May 1953.

Attitudes were similar in France, where many vested interests feared the consequences of becoming involved in the E.D.C. In the words of Lerner and Aron:-

> "The main passion which appears to have influenced public opinion (in France) was fear. The glorious era of imperialism when France could assert her power, her feeling of cultural superiority had disappeared. .... The nationalism which prevailed against the E.D.C. was a peevish and whimpering nationalism which affirmed France's inferiority and her incapacity to adapt to the modern world ... It feared to see the E.D.C. open the road to European unification, because certain French enterprises would have to modernise or founder".(1)

The E.D.C. had been an attempt to arrive at European union by the direct federalist approach. The failure of the E.D.C. led to the adoption of functionalist thinking, which advocated a process of European integration by gradual means. It was now clear that it could not be achieved by a rapid path, because the combination of conservative forces operating within France and Great Britain, as well as adverse international conditions, were against it. As Jean Monnet observed:-

> "The failure of the E.D.C. created a vacuum, but in no way changed the nature of things ... The need to build Europe remained".(2)

Over the past quarter of a century progress towards political integration through slow piecemeal development has provided strong support for the functionalist assertion that the process needs to be gradual. Thus Jean Monnet, architect of both the European Coal and Steel Community in 1950 and the European Economic Community in 1957, who remained, in the words of Richard Mayne, a "One man international pressure group ... persistent, optimistic and restless",(3) kept up an

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1. Lerner, D. and Aron, R., France defeats the E.D.C., Frederick Praeger Inc., New York, 1957.

2. Jean Monnet, "Memoirs", William Collins and Sons and Co., Ltd. London 1976.

3. Richard Mayne, "The Recovery of Europe", Weidenfeld and Nicolson (1970)

active campaign to establish a politically-united Europe throughout his long career. As late as 1972 he again called for a United States of Europe to be established and yet again he was disregarded. Yet at the Paris Summit Meeting in the October of that year the "Nine" itself declared its intention of achieving "economic and monetary union by 1980" - a resolve subsequently frustrated by the deepening of economic recession and a corresponding reluctance on the part of European statesmen to commit their countries' economies at such a time. Whereas functionalism succeeds because it demonstrates the need for integration to all but the hardened sceptic, hard-line federalism only serves to arouse direct resistance from those vested interests which stand to lose from integration, or from reactionary leaders who cherish national sovereignty and such dubious values as ethnic or cultural integrity.

There remain those barriers which serve to divide one group of Europeans from others. There are, for example, four main linguistic subdivisions which all originate from the Aryan root - Celtic, Romance, Teutonic and Slavonic, and which provide the basis of a much vaster range of languages and dialects. Not only do these provide one of the factors which lie at the heart of the national divisions, but they can also prevent cultural and social intercourse between Europeans. There are also three main ethnic subdivisions of the main Caucasian group of mankind in Europe - Mediterranean, Alpine and Nordic, which in some instances also serve as a factor in determining national divisions. Normally such groups and divisions as these are not insuperable, and indeed a number of perfectly stable nations may be cited which have within them several such ethnic and linguistic groups. At the same time they do represent passive obstacles to the development of European internationalism, and when people come to identify with such

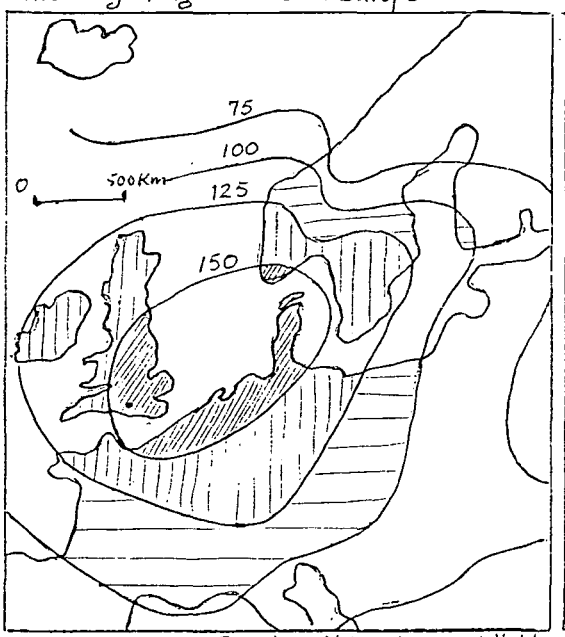
differences too strongly, they can serve to reinforce the worst excesses of nationalism, regionalism or even parochialism, when they become wholly antagonistic to the internationalist spirit.

There remain to be considered ideological and social barriers which, although not so readily apparent, can, because they are able to arouse strong loyalties in their adherents, set people of the same race, language or nations at one anothers' throats. The inherent irony in this is that the idéologies themselves are not antagonistic to the internationalist cause per se - for instance, both Judaism and Christianity stand for internationalism, and the socialist ideal lying at the heart of Communism - similarly supports the rise of an international proletariat. Even capitalism, in its pursuit of profit - is drawn towards international companies and free trade blocs which are its logical culmination. But the adherents of religious and political faiths are also notorious for demanding those of different "persuasions" to concede their differences as the only acceptable price of unity. Thus even the most enlightened idéologies are invalidated by the terrible bigotry and intolerance they engender.

Perhaps the most unsuperable barriers between Europeans are the socio-economic ones which find expression in the divisive class structures within most nations, and the disparities of wealth which occur between the nations of Europe. The Protestant and capitalist northwest of Europe contrasts strongly with both poor Catholic south and eastern Communist bloc, and the ideological differences between them only serve to reinforce the underlying socio-economic ones. The factors which lie behind the disparities of wealth are themselves basically physical. There are geological differences - reflected in different levels of mineral endowments, and the contrasts in soil quality between those regions which underwent glacial erosion of their

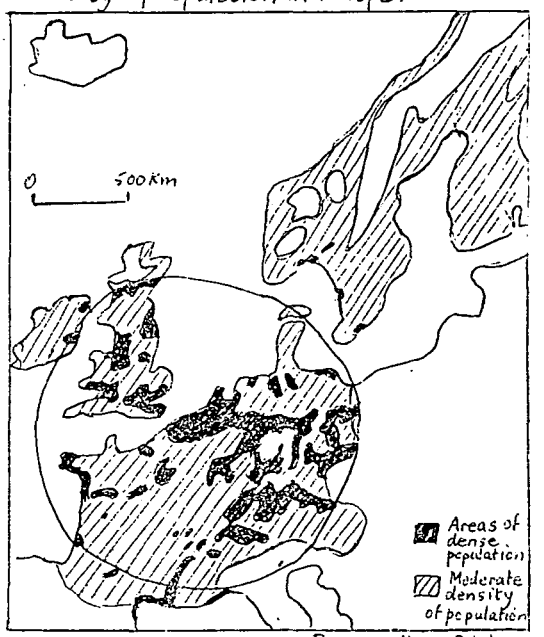
Fig. 2 : Evidences of the unequal distribution of the wealth of Europe.

Intensity of Agriculture in Europe



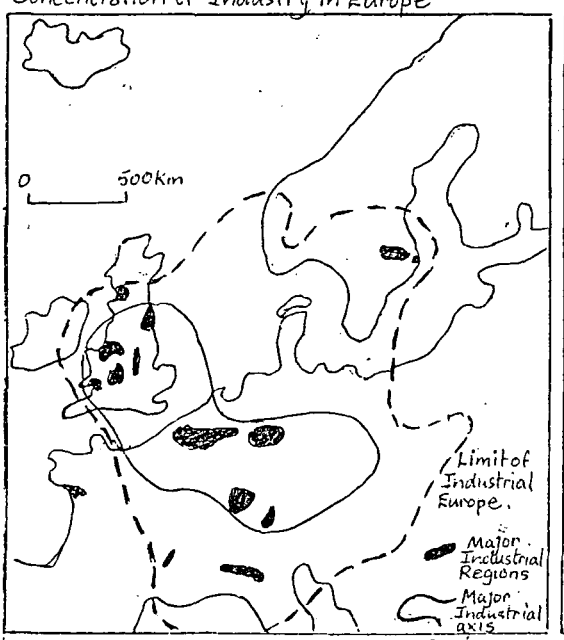
Based on Valkenburg and Held "Europe", Wiley (1952)

Density of Population in Europe.



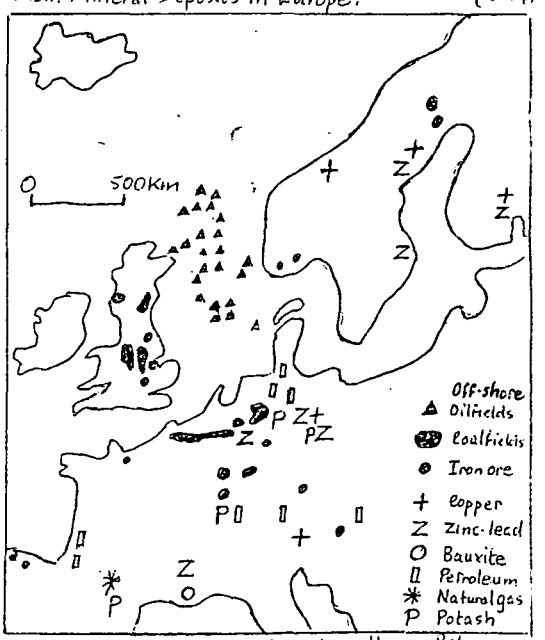
Based on Harry Robinson Western Europe, Macdonald & Evans (1964)

Concentration of Industry in Europe



Based on Harry Robinson, "Western Europe" Macdonald & Evans (1964)

Main Mineral Deposits in Europe.



Based on Harry Robinson, "Western Europe" Macdonald & Evans (1964).

top-soil during the Great Ice Age, and those which benefited from soil deposition as a result of the same agency. There are also climatic contrasts - between regions which suffer seasonal excesses of heat or cold, moisture or aridity which impair their agricultural productivity, and others where the climatic blend favours it. Such factors are, however, overlain by subsequent historical developments, political and socio-economic, which in some instances complicate the basic physical pattern, but have served in the main to reinforce it. The relative wealth of the central zone of North-west Europe, and the relative poverty of Europe's peripheral regions, is borne out by the four maps - relating to agriculture, industry, mineral wealth and population - all of which provide corroboratory support for the observation, on Fig: 2.

Secondly, there are obstacles to economic integration which need to be overcome. To begin with, so long as the overall direction of long-term planning projects for communications, urban and rural development, power generation, water conservation, and economic planning generally, is left in the hands of national and even regional planners, there must inevitably be some lack of co-ordination of such plans, which frequently have repercussions for people in other parts of Europe. It is certainly true that the E.E.C. has done much to encourage the development of European motorways, and that funds have been available for developing regions, agricultural regions of difficulty, and for the marketing and processing of agricultural produce. What is required, however, is the growth of a higher echelon of planning authority to govern the future development of all the important economic amenities in the best interests of Europe as a whole, to give overall impetus and direction to national and regional planners who would retain a right to veto if necessary, to force a compromise in

matters which threatened the interests of their area of jurisdiction. We need such a supranational authority if the widest possible view is to be taken in matters such as the conservation of water, energy, timber, fish, and mineral wealth, and the finding of solutions to such problems as pollution, redeployment of labour which have fallen victim to technological change, effective development of the Third World, etc. Without such oversight such planning is piecemeal, involves wasteful duplication, and does not have the impact necessary for the future well-being of Europe.

One of the main objectives of the Rome Treaties, (as already recounted in Chapter 2, p.63 under item 3 above,) was to provide for mobility, not only of capital and services, but of labour. Such mobility of labour will only become possible when people feel free to move from one country to another in Europe in search of work with the minimum of disruption to their lives. This can only be possible if the essential infrastructure for the provisions of educational, medical and social security services, upon which most advanced societies depend, has been sufficiently harmonised so that, if the breadwinner of the family moves in search of employment, his family is provided with similar amenities. Only then can people be reasonably expected to brave the hazards of new employment, a strange language and unfamiliar customs, confident in the knowledge that the family's health and social security are provided for, and that the childrens' education will not suffer, as a consequence of their move. The principle obstacle to harmonising these provisions is the inequalities of wealth that occur within the Community. Just, however, as the present national governments subsidise the regions within their jurisdiction to ensure consistency of provisions throughout their single nations, so it will be necessary for European governments to subsidise less-

wealthy countries and regions. Harmonisation will be directed towards maintenance of consistant standards of provision, but will leave regional authorities to determine how best to interpret local wishes and needs.

Another obstacle to labour mobility lie in a failure within European Countries to recognise one anothers' qualifications. The main obstacle to the harmonisation of such academic, professional, trade and craft qualifications has always lain in the different standards of training required, and the different structures and functions within otherwise comparable professions, from one country to another. Such differences have depended upon the traditions, as much as upon the wealth, of the countries concerned. For example, the work of highly-skilled radiographers in British hospitals is often carried out by semi-skilled operatives in the Netherlands. Similarly, the various functional specialisms carried out by members of the legal profession vary from country to country, as also do the legal systems themselves. While it would be possible to standardise the educational requirements for every academic, professional, trade and craft award by negotiation, the resultant decisions would, at worst, have to be imposed on the countries of Europe, and arouse considerable opposition both from the general public and the occupations concerned. The compromises required to achieve such settlements would please no-one. In any case, it is quite clear that harmonisation, involving reduced disparities of standards combined with mutual recognition of regional variations, is most likely to meet the acceptance of the majority of people in all regions. It is widely accepted that such harmonisation is best arrived at by empirical means rather than as a result of high-level directives. The E.E.C. has endeavoured in a number of ways to encourage students to undertake their higher education, academical and

professional, in parts of Europe other than their own, thereby providing a challenge to the educational establishments which have to learn to negotiate with individual applicants for the recognition of qualifications and experience acquired elsewhere.(1) In this way the most enterprising of the institutions stand to gain most in securing an international reputation and clientele, and so pioneer the way for less-enterprising establishments to follow. In such a way as this harmonisation is most likely to be achieved gradually, and with considerably less hardship or resentment, than if it was precipitously and inappropriately pushed through by an external authority.

The main obstacle to the federal government of Europe establishing overall guidelines for monetary and fiscal policies applicable to Europe, apart from the predictable defence of national sovereignty by national politicians, must surely be the fact that national currencies are free-floating and consequently are for ever strengthening or weakening one against the other, disrupting the calculations upon which any such overall policy would need to be based, and making it necessary that national policies should vary from one country to another, and require modification in response to changing monetary values and exchange rates from one time to another. The current system of "Green pounds" used in agriculture as a means of subsidising weak currencies on the agricultural produce markets, and the adoption of the e.u.a. - European Unit of Account, which serves as a comparable basis upon which to organise the budget of the Community, both create unnecessary complications and involve administrative expense. The simplest solution would involve the creation of a standard European currency throughout the E.E.C. Next best would be the implementation of the "Snake" previously described on p.82 above. Until, by one means

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1. These efforts of the E.E.C are considered in detail in Chapter 13: pp.456-64.

or another, the currencies of Europe can be made to operate as one, there can be little hope of a strong, integrated European economy, nor for European currency to be capable of withstanding pressures from the dollar in times of world economic crisis.

Thirdly, with regard to the development of European consciousness "in the hearts and minds of men alongside a Europe of treaties"(1) the most serious obstacles, apart from the ethnic, linguistic and philosophical ones, are the much more fundamental barriers of prejudice and distrust, nurtured within each national and cultural entity in the past as forms of defence mechanism, designed to reinforce peoples' loyalties and aid their ability to identify themselves with their roots. There have also been very regionalised social customs which grew out of geographical isolation, and account for the many vigorous sub-cultures in what is, after all, a very vigorous European culture. Education can, by correcting misapprehensions and prejudices, help to prevent their onward transmission, a subject which will be more fully considered in Chapter 10 subsequently, but perhaps most fundamental of all the obstacles to be overcome, which by its injustice helps to fuel the prejudices and distrust between Europeans, are the disparities of wealth which exist within Europe, as demonstrated in Fig: 2. Indeed, these different barriers are inter-associated, since it is specially characteristic of poor peasant peoples that they tend to preserve their group solidarity and defend their interests by preserving their sub-cultures and reinforcing their prejudices against outsiders wealthier than themselves whom they see as a threat, whereas richer societies tend to adopt an eclectic attitude to others'cultures, facing up freely to the introduction of new customs and beliefs which reach

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.372.

them in the course of international trade, and which they therefore regard as part of the benefits of their commercial activities. This is amply demonstrated when we contrast the attitudes of the highly-commercialised burghers of Amsterdam of the seventeenth century, who patronised the arts and displayed religious tolerance to dissenting philosophers exiled for their beliefs, with the people who inhabit the regions of difficulty in Europe, who even in this age of easy communication display religious bigotry, violent forms of nationalism, and adherence to secret societies such as the Mafia. In future it will be a major task of the United States of Europe to bring new sources of wealth to such regions, and in so doing open them up to new ideas so that they be freed from their insecurity, and it would be tempting to suppose that Europe would then come more readily together as a society. It is for the same reason that the blight upon Western Europe which comes of its shameless exploitation of migrant workers - the Greeks, Cypriots and Italians in the U.K., the Turks in France and West Germany - is to be deplored, since it only serves to underline the prejudices of the peoples of peripheral countries in Southern and Eastern Europe and reinforce those prejudices with personal bitterness and animosities.

It has already been observed that Europe should have some kind of oversight of the expanding field of mass media. The variety of languages and dialects in Europe are at first sight an obstacle to this, but when one considers the very successful operation of the Overseas Services of the B.B.C., with transmissions to places all over the world, it is clear that these would not pose any serious difficulty. If Europe were equipped with institutions whose task it was to provide through the various media the news and views of Europeans for Europeans, and enable Europeans to hold up a mirror to themselves and learn about those things they hold in common as well as those things which hitherto have

divided them, then the media could be a major unifying force. The main obstacles to this will again be those politicians who resist any attempt to undermine national sovereignty, but also those people who fear that European oversight of the media would imply government control, in much the same way as these people reject commercial control of the media. In point of fact a national corporation granted its charter by the government, or a commercial organisation with a government franchise, granted the authority to operate like a free press without fear or favour could allay most of these apprehensions. For Europe to develop its own identity it most certainly requires such a voice to speak to its own members and to the world at large. The communications media, using satellite technology, could also serve the needs of commerce and industry, and given European oversight, the cause of European economic integration.

Finally, it remains to consider the obstacles that bar the way towards the harmonisation of European educational systems, not only in terms of their administrative organisations, teaching institutions, curricula and methods, but also as regards their educational standards and qualifications, which constitute a barrier in the moves being made towards economic integration.

Such harmonisation, must not be equated with standardisation, and this is particularly important in respect to education, because young people have to be socialised, which inevitably requires that education must be sensitive to the needs, not only of the young people, but of the society in which they will be required to spend their lives. Regional cultural differences must therefore be respected, local employment needs taking cognizance of, yet at the same time there must be regard for the need to equip the young people to take place in the wider society of Europe. Some such degree of harmonisation is essential if the polyglot educational systems of Europe are to be equipped to

assume the roles identified for them in the subsequent chapters of this book, which will collectively represent their task in the promotion of European unity.

Whereas traditionally it was the task of education to transmit and reinforce the traditions and cultural values of society more or less unchanged, along with such technological knowledge and skills acquired in the past and required for the future, to this is added the responsibility for up-dating knowledge and technology which is changing so rapidly that the entire working generation must undergo continuous education if it is not to lose touch, and again preparing an entire population for the changes in their lives and the new responsibilities required of them, as citizens of a unifying Europe. These challenges confront education at a time when the cost of maintaining even the existing provisions for education in Europe is rising, and when there is demand for education not only from a privileged minority, but from all sectors of society. Education is therefore called upon to maintain or raise standards of excellence, to meet new or modified educational ojectives, and yet to do these things while at the same time achieving economies through greater cost efficiency.

Harmonisation must not be confined to slavish compromise between existing European education systems therefore, but must involve development and expansion throughout Europe into something radically different in purpose, organisation and function, so that it is better equipped to cope with the challenges confronting it.

The practical problems confronting education in putting its own house in order, so that it can assume responsibility for the role it is required to perform in the service of European unity, seem to be almost as unsuperable as that role is likely to prove, and they are the more difficult because they have to be tackled almost simultaneously

with one another and that role, if they are to be successful.

These practical problems include the following:-

First, how to undertake a radical reconstruction and reorientation of Europe's education systems at a time when the cost of maintaining even the existing provisions is already proving too great a burden.

Secondly, how to undertake such an unprecedented reconstruction, one might almost call it new construction, without some kind of "model" to guide the work.

Thirdly, how to undertake this mammoth task within such a restricted timescale. That is to say, the "New Education" must be made available while its own development is taking place, if children already born, and adults already at work, are to be equipped to face imminent challenges and changes. Today's children constitute Europe's citizenry for the first half of the twenty first century!

Fourthly, how to equip teachers - those to be trained and those already at work, for the work ahead. Education depends more upon the teachers who implement it than upon all the organisation, teaching institutions, facilities, curricula and methods required to make it possible. Past experience suggests that education policies which teachers are ill-equipped to implement, or are out-of-sympathy for, are doomed either to failure, or else to fall far short of what their founders intended. The problem lies, not in equipping teachers intellectually or professionally but in ensuring that they are sympathetic and motivated to give their support to the task.

It may be argued that the answers lie, not in simply harmonising the existing structures, but in encouraging the co-ordinated reform of each national system so as to retain those distinctive features which meet local needs and tastes, and yet ensure compatibility between them. The reforms must, however, be radical enough to ensure that compulsory

education can no longer be seen as the main sector of education, but simply as preliminary to continuous or life-long education, which will be a major part of adult life, just as childhood is preliminary to maturity. The subject of continuous education is dealt with more fully in Chapter 14, but it is relevant here to ask just how such life-long education can provide the answers to all the problems cited.

As regards cost, so long as compulsory education is reoriented - so that, instead of devoting itself to giving young people the knowledge and skills they require for life, it concentrates upon giving them the skills they will require to learn whatever they may be called upon to undertake in their subsequent lives, then continuous education will be much cheaper to provide. Already in the U.K. the Open University has demonstrated the fact that adults can take responsibility for their own learning, provided there are counsellors to guide their choice of studies, and tutors to guide their approach to study. Such responsible self-study does not require a classroom situation, and it is far more cost effective in terms of teaching, time and resources.

Secondly, as regards the establishment of a "model" for autonomous learning - it might be said that the Open University concept provides an excellent pointer to the type of approach needed. As regards the necessary reorientation of compulsory education, so that it becomes a preparation for learning throughout life, rather than a definitive education for life, one useful suggestion has been put forward by the 'Plan Europe 2000' project. They have suggested the setting up of a "European Institute" "independent of governments, entrusted with comparative research and the formulation of innovative projects" as well as the "institution of an annual European prize", comparable to the Nobel Prizes, to publicise educational innovation. At Community level they propose the setting up of communities "specifically concerned

with the educational dimension of European problems", encouragement and support "for interest groups and lobbies directly affected by educational affairs", and for "the birth and development of responsible educational authorities" capable of drawing up educational policies for themselves".(1)

Thirdly, the matter of the urgency with which education has not only to reform itself, but set about its role of preparing Europeans for the integration of Europe, is one that can only be met by continuous education. To begin with the quickest way for innovations in education itself to be translated from research and experiment into reality is by enabling administrators and teachers to undertake research and study along-side their day-to-day work in education. Feedback under these circumstances can be almost instantaneous. Furthermore, the whole of the European population is within the reach of continuous education, because by its nature it will use all the educational resources available within the Community at large, and will reach people through the mass media and in their own homes. Under this system the entire European population can regenerate itself within a generation, instead of waiting for its young people, having received their education, to reach positions of authority in society before the leven can begin to work, let alone have a cumulative effect upon European society at large.

Fourthly and finally, the practice of continuous life-long learning both personally and professionally, can provide for the regeneration of the teaching profession as never before has been possible. There has always been a tragic dichotomy between teachers in higher education, who have been encouraged to go on learning and researching and to share this enriching process with their students, and teachers in schools, who have

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, Editor, op.cit., pp.189-192

tended merely to teach what they have been taught, ad nauseum, because they have been deemed to be working at too low a level to make any useful contribution to learning, or to require stimulus. Fortunately, this dichotomy has already been breaking down, but continuous education seems to offer the ultimate solution, by extending the means of regeneration to the entire teaching profession, so that it can become part of the regenerative process, by which the "New Education" is brought into being.

In this chapter, we have identified not only the main obstacles to political and economic integration, but also the obstacles which exist to the development of European consciousness. Finally, the chapter has examined the problems which education has to overcome if it is to perform the role of promoting European unity. We now have the necessary background from which to look at the various approaches which may be adopted to the role, and the reforms which need to be undertaken in the character of formal education to make it better fitted to perform the role, which will be concerns for Part II of this Study.

Part Two: The Role of Formal Education in the achievement of European unity.

CHAPTER VII: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 1. LANGUAGE TEACHING: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

Of all the obstacles to a full communion between nations and individuals, inability to communicate directly by the spoken or written word must surely rank as one of the most fundamental. At the political level, achievement of international understanding is often severely curtailed by

> "Lack of ability to speak other than the mother tongue ... ... (which) ... can create all kinds of problems and difficulties at all levels whenever supra-national decisions have to be taken".(1)

At the economic level any hope of achieving a lasting prosperity, and the stable labour relations upon which it must ultimately depend, is seriously reduced in the absence of a labour force and management capable, at all times, of effective communication with one another. In a period when mobility of labour is being encouraged, and when migrant workers make up substantial minorities in most Western European countries, there is a considerable need for the migrants to be educated in the language of their host country, and for care to be taken to ensure that their children are educationally equipped so that they, in due course, are capable of taking up places in their adopted society as first-class citizens. There is also a desperate demand for administrators and secretarial staff competent in the languages with which, increasingly, they will be called upon to deal, and for higher managerial staff, who along with their spouses, should be equipped to communicate and socialise effectively with their counterparts in other European countries when necessary. Finally, it is highly desirable that workers taking up employment in another European country should be capable of airing their grievances and conducting effective negotiations

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.359

with their management, not solely in order to minimise industrial unrest, but also to promote trust and goodwill between them.

At the social level only possession of a lingua franca, or at least some level of bi-lingualism or multi-lingualism, can help nurture the improved empathy and understanding between Europeans which must precede true European consciousness, let alone any real appreciation of one anothers' cultures and beliefs.

It is true that lack of language skills can in part be circumvented, as is so often the practice of governments and industry, by the employment of translators, interpreters and commentators at international gatherings, while literature can be printed in parallel editions and films or television programmes dubbed or sub-titled. Still, no one would question but that the only long-term solution to linguistic barriers must lie in ensuring that as many people as possible - of all ages and conditions and throughout Europe - should be able to speak, read and write in two or more languages, or else that all should have the mastery of a mutually-acceptable lingua franca.

Recognition of this fact has prompted, as has already been indicated, the promulgation of a whole series of recommendations, and the undertaking of numerous experiments and pilot schemes, by a number of leading international organisations. These have already been documented in Chapter 5. This chapter will therefore confine its attentions to consideration of the language teaching approaches that have been researched in recent years specifically to promote the development of a multi-lingual society in Europe, and will seek also to ascertain just how successfully these researches, and the efforts of the major organisations, have been in influencing the teaching of languages in ordinary European schools and colleges.

Two most interesting research developments in the teaching of

languages have included - first... the research which has led to the development of a European unit credit system through the work of J.L.M. Trim, J.A. van Ek and others under the auspices of the Council of Europe, and secondly the work of J.P. Mooijman and others in the Netherlands in developing a "new approach to the learning of a foreign language".(1) The idea of a European unit credit system for the learning of modern languages grew out of discussions by a group of educational experts under J.L.M. Trim, the Director of the Department of Linguistics at the University of Cambridge, and convened by the Committee for Out-of-School Education and Cultural Development of the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe. It was intended at the time that such a system should be designed specifically to serve the needs of adults. The idea was that credits should be awarded on completion of each level of linguistic attainment, and that the credits should be granted recognition throughout the member countries, and that existing examinations in each country should be equated to the credits, so that the credit system would serve to augment, and not displace, existing academic standards.

The intention was that the European unit credit system should be made applicable to any European language - major or minor - and that alternative credits should be devised to meet the different needs of all kinds of individuals. The grades of attainment were identified to include way-stage, threshold, basic, general competence and full professional standards. Eventually, the categories of people whose needs it was decided, such a system might profitably be adapted to serve, included children at school, adults - acquiring language skills for professional or domestic purposes, e.g. tourists, and migrant workers and their children.

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1. A.H. van den Bos and J.P. Mooijman, "I Spy. In Search of Meaning", introductory paper, typewritten, 1st November 1980. p.1.

The basic principle underlying the Council's European unit credit system is that the needs of each particular student should be analysed and that the contents, level and orientation of any particular course should be selected to match the needs identified, thereby reducing what would need to be taught to the essential minimum, and so lessening the effort, time and cost required for its acquisition. The analysis reduces the skills required to meet the identified need to a minimum, but the system was not intended to dictate methods of teaching, grammatical content, etc., adopted by the teacher.

Definition of a Threshold Level was undertaken first because it was construed as constituting the essential linguistic base, from which the student could go on to select subsequent courses out of a wide selection available in order to meet his own particular needs.

J.A. van Ek, in an article to explain the Threshold Level,(1) explained how, since the unit credit system is intended to be a "universal model i.e. one capable of defining all potential language-learning objectives", it has to be learner-oriented. To achieve this orientation, the main questions to which an answer needs to be sought need to include:-

First, who is the learner, and what are his main characteristics?
Secondly, what does he need to be able to do in the foreign language?
Thirdly, what language forms will he require in order to do this?
In answer to the second of these questions it is necessary to identify not only the "situations" in which the language is likely to be used - including physical settings, social and psychological roles assumed and topics dealt with; the kinds of language activities the learner will need to engage in, be they as listener, speaker or interpreter; the

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1. J.A. van Ek., 'The Threshold Level' in 'A European unit/credit system for modern language learning by adults', Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1978, p.9.

possible language functions he will be required to perform - persuasion, command, apology, etc., the language forms he will need to be able to handle; but also the topics he will need to be able to speak upon and to what depth. The Threshold Level has been devised to take account of a range of such needs with a retained vocabulary of 1,600 words, of which 1,000 could be actively recalled and applied to live situations.

The influence of the Threshold Levels has been substantial in this country in terms of positing a model of language in notional, functional and global, rather than in linear, grammatical terms. The majority of schemes in the U.K. operating Graded Objectives in modern languages have tended to use the Threshold Level as a check-list for syllabus content.

This influence has been shown further in the new French and German courses which have appeared recently in this country for schools, e.g. Tricolore (Arnold-Wheaton), Action! and Deutsch Heute (Nelson). In the same way major French and German publications for adults have been drawn directly on the Council of Europe work in this field. Archipel (Didier) and Deutsch Aktiv (Langenscheidt) are two good examples and are distributed in the U.K. by European Schoolbooks.(1)

Whereas the above system is based upon analysing the needs of the pupil - so that superfluous learning can be eliminated - but is content to operate through the traditional approaches to the teaching of modern languages, the researches of the Dutch Jesuit schoolmaster J.P. Mooijman are concerned almost exclusively with the effective motivation, and the stimulation of faculties for active recall and comprehension, in pupils. He has been concerned, not with the contents, but with the methods of language teaching, yet both approaches are claimed to achieve effective mastery of language with the minimum of time, effort and expense.

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1. Derek Hewett, Teacher Liaison Officer of C.I.L.T. in reply to an enquiry concerning Language Learning and European Unity; Centre for information on language Teaching and Research, 6th September 1984.

Clearly, since neither approach need be exclusive of the other, both could very well operate in conjunction.

J.P. Mooijman has dedicated his life to the cause of developing an effective and original modern language teaching system. He has written a number of textbooks and articles on teaching English "with the aim of achieving a higher quality of teaching programmes and improved methods, reducing wastes of time, energy and money through a more professional approach. (He is) ... actively interested in ... seeking a solution to the extensive cultural and language communication problem posed by the unification of Western Europe".(1)

More recently his attention has been given over to the development of a whole series of graded textbooks in five parts in collaboration with A.H. van den Bos and entitled "I Spy; In Search of Meaning".(2) He has described the series as adopting a "receptive semantic approach, enabling any normal child aged 11 to 12 years, to learn to understand English, either spoken or printed, to a level of about 1,800 words in two years' time, or less".(3)

Under this system the child is introduced to twenty new words in each forty-five minute lesson. The words most similar to those of the childrens' own language are considered first. The children listen to the words read, say them, act out their meaning, watch the teacher act them out, and then - when they have learned to recognise, pronounce and comprehend their meaning, they are asked to put them into gaps left in twenty jumbled sentences, so that they are obliged to identify the appropriate context. In this way 1,100 words may be acquired in the

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1. J.P. Mooijman, personal curriculim vitae, Amsterdam, 9th March 1981.

2. A.H. van den Bos and J.P. Mooijman, "I Spy; In Search of Meaning", published by B.V. Uitgeverif N.I.B. Zeist, Holland (1980).

3. J.P. Mooijman, in an apology for his language method as exemplified in the "I Spy" Series, 16th June 1981, p.1.

first year. Grammatical constructions, on the other hand, are acquired more gradually by usage, although before this whole sentences may be comprehended by inference from the main words. Gradually pupils grasp the various forms of the same word and their meanings in appropriate context. Pupils consolidate their mastery of the language by listening to it being spoken, by correcting errors in spoken and written English which have been deliberately included, by studying readers parallel to each grade, and by undertaking exercises, puzzles, and games designed to stimulate competitive interest and personal sense of achievement. Care is taken at all stages to avoid demotivation of pupils through over-preoccupation with points of grammar, or through bringing undue pressure upon them to speak the language before they feel ready.

In response to a more recent enquiry in October 1984, asking what progress has been made in promoting the adoption of the approach to language learning he has expounded in "I Spy; In Search of Meaning" Father Mooijman reports that "the range of grades 1 - 6 which makes up the entire course are now published, and due for release in 1985. For each stage the corresponding ranges of graded readers and casettes are constantly being widened.

Father Mooijman regards his approach as an important "break through" even though, so far, the series has only been published in its original edition, for teaching English to Dutch school children. In the Netherlands he estimates that there are "twenty secondary schools, of various types, which have adopted the scheme, stayed with it, much to their satisfaction, over the past five years", and that "some ten thousand children ... are involved in the new approach". He declared moreover, that there is already a first French Version, and that there are plans to publish "similar courses in French and German".

Father Mooijman is optimistic that progress will continue, although it will "take time before the E.E.C. (becomes) - truly a community of

nations who understand each others' languages, and appreciate each others' different ways of life". He is convinced that the Community is potentially, in his words "a wonderful, highly-gifted team".(1)

Having considered the recommendation of the international organisations for the promotion of multi-lingualism in Europe, and the recommendations of language experts concerning the contents, and the methods, appropriate for the effective teaching of foreign languages, it is now relevant to consider how far such recommendations have so far influenced educational practice in Western Europe generally, and in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, West Germany and France in particular.

Progress in Western Europe generally, it seems, has been greatest in countries like the Netherlands and West Germany where the adoption of a lingua franca and the raising of the overall level of language competence are seen as commercially advantageous, and least in countries such as the United Kingdom and France where the native languages have come to be the lingua franca in large areas of the world, and have been widely accepted as commercial languages - thereby enervating the wills of the inhabitants of such countries to learn the tongues of other nations.

It is generally agreed by most organisations that a second language, at the very least, should be introduced to pupils at the earliest possible age, and at the latest by ten years. It is also generally regarded as essential that one, preferably two, foreign languages should be made available to all students at the secondary school stage. Facilities, it is argued, should be extended to the less-able, the physically and even the mentally handicapped, and care should also be taken to make provision for the growing number of immigrant

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1. J.P. Mooijman, replying to questions about recent progress in the promotion of his language - Teaching Approach, 4th October 1984.

children in Europe. It is also generally agreed that, in teaching languages, greater stress should be placed upon the acquisition of effective skills in oral and written communications, as well as upon using a good contemporary style of language, and less upon the mastery of formal grammar and syntax.

In practice, most Western European countries have endeavoured to lower the age for introducing a first foreign language to at least primary, and in some cases to infant level. Most children of secondary age receive tuition in one foreign language, and the study of two foreign languages is quite commonly undertaken. There has also been a trend towards the expansion of language teaching facilities to serve the needs of migrant workers needing to learn the host country's language, and of their children so that they can learn their original mother tongue. In addition, there is growing demand from small ethnic communities for there to be provisions for instruction in their languages.

Thus, although the greatest demand is for tuition in English and French, there are claims for a wide range of minority languages as well. In addition to this pressure for diversification, there are also changes afoot in the methods of teaching adopted. Whereas the traditional Humanist approach, as exemplified by the French Lycee or the German Gymnasium, was to stress the value of analysis of grammar and syntax, and the acquisition of high literary styles in translation through the emulation of Classical models, the contemporary trends are towards greater emphasis placed upon oral and written fluency, good comprehension, use of contemporary idiom, and the development of the fullest possible insight into the culture, literature and thought of the people concerned. Attendant upon these trends has been the adoption of more imaginative methods of teaching, including fuller use made of

visual aids, language laboratory facilities, and of study visits and exchanges.

This said, however, the age at which language teaching is introduced into the school curriculum, the choice of language offered, the number of languages normally studied, and the methods of teaching them adopted - all vary considerably from one European country to another.

The U.K. has probably made least progress of any country in Western Europe towards the achievement of bi-lingualism - even in its school population.

In the late seventies a government-sponsored experiment was instituted for the teaching of French to pupils in a limited number of primary schools in England and Wales, and employing the most up-to-date of oral techniques. Unfortunately this experiment has met with only limited success. "Although French is still being taught successfully in primary schools in some areas of the country, such as Herts and I.L.E.A. (The Inner London Education Authority) the experiment has ... been largely discontinued for a variety of reasons".

These reasons included:-

> "... not enough trained French teachers to staff the scheme adequately. Given a choice many headmasters, unconvinced of the efficacy of the scheme anyway, opted to allocate their resources in other directions. ... difficulty (encountered), ... in towns and cities particularly ... to maintain continuity from primary to secondary level. Many secondary schools with a large number of feeder primary schools were forced to revert to the beginning because of the vast range of experience found in their new intake. ... there was no general evidence that motivation was either increased or prolonged by an earlier start."(1)

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1. Derek Hewett, Teacher Liaison Officer of C.I.L.T., in reply to an enquiry concerning Language Learning and European Unity, Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research, (6th September 1984).

In general, few pupils are introduced to languages until middle or secondary school stages, and even then provisions for the teaching of languages are limited, inconsistant and overall inadequate.

In the post-war period, but particularly since 1966, secondary education in England and Wales has undergone widespread comprehensivisation. Despite this long process, although by 1979,(1) 85% of secondary school pupils were attending comprehensive schools, there were still substantial minorities attending either independent schools, or traditional state grammar schools in those local education authorities which had resisted pressures to comprehensivise. Accordingly the situation with respect to language teaching may vary from one type of school to another.

For instance, there are still a number of traditional public schools and grammar schools which have retained Latin and/or Greek in their curricula, while more progressive institutions of the same ilk have introduced a modern language, often German or Spanish, in addition.

Comprehensive schools, on the other hand, tend to offer French, although some may also offer German, Italian, Spanish or Russian as well. Unfortunately, there is a tendency to offer the foreign language as one subject in a very broad curriculum, so that it is not available to all. More able pupils are usually introduced to French at the outset of their middle or secondary school career. Depending upon their initial success or otherwise with it, some proceed into higher "sets" or "streams" where they can study the subject academically. Those channelled into the lower sets or streams take up C.S.E. language courses where emphasis is placed upon oral expression, and where European Studies are used to provide "background" to the language.

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1. Lionel Elvin, Editor, The Education System in the European Community, Guide compiled in co-operation with the European Commission, Nelson, (1981) p.230.

At fourteen plus, when formal options are selected and when it is often finally decided which pupils will be prepared for G.C.E. "O" Level examinations, the option system employed may lead to some students abandoning language work entirely after only three years. Of those who sit, and pass, their G.C.E. "O" Level French, some opt to leave school. Of those who opt to proceed to their "A" Levels in a Sixth Form or a College of Further Education, a substantial proportion will choose subjects other than French, leaving only a minority who see language studies as involved in their vocation. Of these, a proportion pass the university entrance requirements, and of these a proportion successfully graduate in language studies.

Despite this, John Audric, back in 1967, optimistically forecast that Britain need not feel disadvantaged when she joined the E.E.C., since according to his information, those reading for degrees at the time included "science subjects 13,129; English 12,386; Modern Languages 11,223; History 9,824; Mathematics 7,947; and Geography 5,775".(1)

A recent enquiry directed to the Council of Europe suggests that Mr. Audric's optimism has subsequently been justified. Maitland Stobart, Head of the School Education Division of C.C.C., has observed that, according to his "Colleagues in the Secretariat's Establishment Division ... the Council of Europe encounters no difficulties in recruiting well qualified Secretaries in the United Kingdom, although they point out that there has been a noticeable improvement in the candidates' language skills in the past five years".(2)

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1. John Audric, article; "Language Teaching in British Schools", in the "Daily Telegraph" of 4th May 1967, quoted by Robert H. Beck, "Change and Harmonisation in European Education", University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis (1971) p.7.

2. Maitland Stobart, Head of the School Education Division of C.C.C. in reply to an enquiry, Strasbourg, 22nd October 1984.

There has certainly been no lack of effort on the part of government, L.E.A.s or schools. Most schools operate up-to-date language laboratories, employ highly-qualified specialists and participate in the language assistant scheme. They often encourage their students to take part in individual and class visits and exchanges. Nevertheless, there remains a relatively low demand for language options, which can only be put down to a low level of motivation on the part of British students for studying languages other than their own. This has been severally attribited to the insularity of British people, the British colonial traditions which made English widely spoken throughout the world, and a tendency for other Europeans, confronted by British people, to be able and willing, even eager, to converse with them in English.

The Director of C.I.L.T., J.L.M. Trim, in his letter to the Times Educational Supplement, confirms this analysis, referring to this kind of complacency as part of a "fading imperial afterglow".(1)

Following on from the general description of education in the Netherlands, included in Chapter 4 above, this chapter is specifically concerned with the state of language teaching there, and includes a paraphrase of an interview with de Heer Willem van Elsdingen, an experienced teacher of English at the R.K.S.G., in Darendael, North Brabent, a H.A.V.O./M.A.V.O. school, in an attempt to provide some corrective to the generalised account, by indicating how languages are taught in a more conservative rural part of the country.

Whereas it has been attempted in other European countries, there has been very little foreign language experimentation in Dutch pre-primary schools.

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1. J.L.M. Trim, Director of C.I.L.T., "Linguistic Myopia", "Times Educational Supplement", dated 16th March 1984.

Since 1975, however, English has been made a compulsory subject for pupils of ten years of age and above, that is, at the upper end of the primary school, it being the government's stated policy to make the entire country bi-lingual by 1985. To this end, 50,000 primary teachers have undertaken courses in English, and 16,000 specialist English teachers have been trained between 1975 and 1980. The most up-to-date audio-visual techniques are being applied and emphasis has been shifted from grammar and translation to oral and written skills and comprehension.

During the first year of secondary education, the so-called Brugklas, which runs from 12 to 13 years, it is compulsory for all pupils to study English and French. After this they are allowed to embark upon one of four distinct secondary school courses. V.W.O. students learn Greek, Latin and at least one modern foreign language for six years, and their seven subject school-leaving certificate is required to include Dutch and at least one other language. H.A.V.O. schools offer a five year course, and M.A.V.O. schools either four or three year courses, both of which involve two modern languages - usually English and German. Least able pupils, those who attend I.B.O. or L.A.V.O. school for combined general education and vocational training for three years, still are required to undertake one foreign language - English - in accordance with government policy that everyone must study this as a minimum.

De Heer van Elsdingen has helped to elaborate the above as follows:-

"Study of foreign languages is compulsory in all Dutch secondary schools. The first year, or Brugklas, devotes three periods a week each to French and English. In the second year of the V.W.O. Latin is introduced, or, in the case of a H.A.V.O./M.A.V.O. school like the one I teach in, German. In all kinds of schools there are fixed numbers of

periods per week which are given over to language studies throughout the duration of the school course. Languages are also included in the compulsory examinations conducted twice in every year. The written papers set by the government include multiple-choice type questions set on a number of passages for comprehension, and are worth 50% of the final mark. School papers covering listening, speaking and writing which are assessed by the teachers themselves are worth the other 50%.

Dr. Carpay of Utrecht University, a linguist who has advocated that the Dutch nation should adopt English as its lingua franca, was responsible for legislation passed in 1975, which makes English compulsory for all children above the age of ten years - that is, from the top end of the primary school onwards.

In practice, most Dutch secondary school pupils receive tuition in two, or even three, foreign languages during their time at school - chosen from English, French and German. The School-leaving Examination requires each pupil to be examined in at least one foreign language in addition to Dutch. The least academic students study either English, or in the Eastern Border areas of Holland - German, which for them is the language most likely to impinge upon their every-day lives.

The old emphasis in language teaching used to be on the grammar, the syntax and upon translation, but the modern approach has been widened to include speaking, reading, listening and writing the languages. This may still be approached in a formal grammatical manner in many schools, although particularly with regard to teaching the academically less-able students, emphasis is increasingly laid upon acquiring language skills by a more non-analytical approach, that is, by "direct methods". The M.A.V.O. Project of 1975 was a Dutch Teachers' Movement which encouraged the adoption of a more child-oriented approach in teaching, and this movement has had a profound effect upon the teaching of

languages throughout this country.

Following the recommendations of the Council of Europe, de Heer van Ek has developed the new concept of the "Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools, which was published by Noordhoff-Longmans in 1977, and has been given the wholehearted support of the Netherlands Government.

A Jesuit priest, Revd. Father Mooijman of Ignatius College in Amsterdam, took part in a language experiment in U.S.A., from which he has developed a whole new approach to the acquisition of foreign languages. Fr. Mooijman has found that our "active" vocabulary is only 10% of our "passive" vocabulary, the words we know but cannot use. Instead of concentrating on formal grammar from the beginning, he has given his attention to enabling students to acquire huge vocabularies three times as large as might be expected would be acquired employing traditional methods in the first year. He has found, furthermore, that pupils were subsequently better able to acquire language competence sooner than by more conventional means.

Such ideas as these have had a profound influence upon Dutch language teaching. Although no statistics are available to support this, it is observable that, in the 's Hertogenbosch district of North Brabant, people of above thirty-five years of age with competence in foreign languages are comparatively few, whereas below this age the majority are able to express themselves reasonably well in both Dutch and English. The entire secondary school population has learned at least one foreign language - usually English - and sometimes French and German as well."

In West Germany, despite the growing powers for the promulgation and co-ordination of educational policies which have been assumed by the Federal Government, and the strong recommendations which it makes

from time to time to the respective Länder, each of these retains autonomy sufficient to ensure a healthy regard for local wishes and needs. Most German children, about 75% in 1980, attend pre-primary schools, where experiments have already been conducted into the teaching of oral French to some Kindergarten children.

In some Länder pupils at the upper end of the Grundschule - primary school - which caters for pupils of between five and nine years, are introduced to a second language.

At secondary level moves towards comprehensivisation of schools began in about 1950, and today all länder are experimenting with this system. Whereas, however, there are some avant garde länder in which comprehensive schools are the norm e.g. Berlin's West Region, the more conservative länder are moving only cautiously and retaining most of their traditional gymnasia, comparable to the traditional British Grammar school. In these more conventional areas pupils move up from the grundschule at nine years of age to one of three types of secondary school.

The gymnasium offers a nine year course leading to the Abitur Examination for university entrance. Here the first pupils take English, or occasionally French, and a second foreign language is introduced in the third year. The realschule offers a six year course in which one foreign language is compulsory for all pupils. The haupschule, or secondary modern, offers a five year course, which may be followed by further full-or part-time technical, commercial or vocational education up to the age of eighteen years.

In the more progressive regions, where all pupils proceed to comprehensive schools, of which there are more than one hundred and fifty throughout West Germany, language provisions vary. For example, in the six West Berlin comprehensives, one compulsory foreign language

is prescribed, and two or three more languages can be chosen from a list of Compulsory Elective Subjects, which includes economics, sociology, practical or commercial subjects, but also minority languages such as Arabic, Hebrew, Modern Greek and Hungarian.

As regards the approach now adopted towards the teaching of languages - "greater emphasis than ever is now being given to the socio-cultural contexts of the languages taught".(1)

The following comments on the teaching of languages in the rather conservative Land of Bayern (Bavaria) were volunteered by Jürgen Lechner, on behalf of Bayerischer Philologenverband in Munich, an organisation which represents about 18,000 school-masters. Bayern is a Land which has resisted change, so that "there is still the system (of education) which existed in your country before the establishment of comprehensive education" i.e. the tri-partite system. Herr Lechner went on to explain that:-

"... the principal languages taught in Bayern gymnasia are English and French, although Latin, Greek, Spanish, Italian and Russian occupy minority places in the curriculum. Two languages are required of all pupils preparing for university entry. The modern trend in language teaching is towards the adoption of the "Direct" or "Active Method", in which, as far as possible, lessons are conducted without resort to the pupils' own tongue. In recent years teaching methods have changed, opportunities for pupil exchanges have increased, and the level of spoken language competence has been raised considerably. English, in particular, has gained in importance and become the principal language taught, and all pupils receive tuition in it. Upon completion of five years teaching service, all teachers of modern languages are eligible

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1. Karl Wagner of Koln, "World problems in the European Classroom", report of the Council of Europe Conference, Lillehammer, Strasbourg, 1979, p.15.

to make study visits abroad, usually of three weeks or three months duration, to up-date their linguistic skills".

The English and German Teacher of one Bavarian gymnasium, Herr Bulow of Ottobrunn, just south of Munich, explained that the main languages taught in his school were English, French and Latin, and estimated that 73% of the pupils in his school study two foreign languages, and the other 27% three foreign languages. The most usual places to which his school sends students on study visits are Austria, France and England, most of such visits being for language studies and conducted during the school vacations. No statistics were available to support this information.

As regards the situation in France, it has been customary in the past not to introduce study of a foreign language until the secondary school level, but then to pursue language studies with greater intensity than was usual elsewhere. However, since 1971 there has been a tendency to develop language courses even in L'écoles Maternelles, or nursery schools. English or German has been taught orally, employing student teachers from the other country concerned, so that these very young children have the opportunity to acquire "the music of language".

As regards language teaching at the secondary stage, the pupils of the Cycle d'Orientation at the College d'enseignement secondaire, which caters for pupils between thirteen and fifteen years of age, particularly, are most rigorously streamed, and the amount of language teaching at this stage depends upon the stream. Thus, whereas in the previous two years - the Cycle d'Observation, which extends from eleven to thirteen - pupils in the academic and intermediate streams have shared a common curriculum involving the study of one foreign language, and even the lowest stream had three hours of language tuition per week, from that point onwards the top two streams are channelled into

three language options, while the lower stream now concentrates on vocational studies. The three language options all appear to be very exacting by British standards, particularly since they are designed to embrace pupils from the two top streams, which comprised the top three quarters of the secondary intake. The Classical Stream undertakes Latin and/or Greek in addition to the modern language begun in the lower cycle. The Modern I Stream adds a second modern language to the one already undertaken, while the Modern II Stream intensifies the study of the modern language already undertaken as well as devoting more time to the study of the mother tongue.

At fifteen years of age, all pupils embark upon the second cycle of secondary education. Pupils are guided into "Long" or "Short Courses". Those who embark upon Long Courses are being prepared for entry to the Baccalauréat Examination and University entry, and although Classical and Modern Language, and Scientific and Technical biases emerge in the wide range of courses offered at this stage, still it has been contrived that those pupils undertaking "Arts" subjects must still retain some scientific ones, while "Scientific and Technical" courses make time for philosophy and the "Arts". In this way the upper three quarters of the secondary intake retain some linguistic studies throughout their secondary school career, and only the least academic pupils concentrate upon short, vocational courses in which languages have no place.

The following contributions from Monsieur R. Hickel, Director of the Centre Regional de Documentation Pedagogique, in Strasbourg, Alsace, and Monsieur L. Blech, a secondary school teacher in Illzach, Near Mulhouse in Alsace, will serve to elaborate the generalised description of French Language teaching in the schools.

"From the fourth year of the primary school, from ten years of age and over, pupils in Alsace are taught German, using an audio-visual

approach. Because 80% of Alsatians are bi-lingual - speaking a local dialect of German in a situation very reminiscent of Wales, there is also a greater demand for German than for any other language at the secondary school level. Most lower cycle secondary school curricula offer English and German, some add Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and a few even offer Russian. Classes at the upper secondary school cycle may study a second, even a third, foreign language. All secondary school pupils must attend school until the age of sixteen, and must learn at least one foreign language, so that even the least academically-able students are obliged to learn a little of some language other than their own.

As regards the methods of language teaching employed, there has been a recent reaction in favour of bringing back the study of formal grammar after years of concentrating upon the audio-visual approach only. Most schools are equipped with mini language laboratories. As already observed, most Alsatians are at least bi-lingual, with most of the older people able to speak German as well as French as a result of successive German occupations. Probably some 30% of the twenty to twenty-five year old group have the ability to speak English as well. When I was teaching, I used to be in charge of regular exchanges between Epinal and Loughborough in Leicestershire, England. It certainly helped break down national stereotypes and misconceptions, though I am not at all sure whether it did much for language skills.

There are some national schemes for language teachers to go abroad in order to improve their skills as part of their initial or in-service training.

Monsieur L. Blech is an English teacher in a college d'enseignement secondaire, the Jules Verne College in Illzach, Near Mulhouse in Alsace. He teaches pupils in the lower secondary cycle - from eleven to sixteen

years of age. He has explained that "some German is taught in the primary schools of my region, while, in secondary schools English and German, sometimes Spanish and Italian, are taught as well.

In my own school, where German and English are taught, all the children learn German, while about 50% of the pupils learn English as a second foreign language. Teaching is conducted by means of the audio-visual approach, using textbooks and tapes. I estimate that in the district in which my school is situated about 30% of the secondary school population can probably speak English and German as well as French".

It seems a rather sad indictment of British Education that, despite three decades of exposure to the recommendations of the Council of Europe - of which she is a member, and one decade as a member of the E.E.C., that Great Britain, in all Western Europe, should be furthest from achieving the target of investing all her school-children from the age of ten years and upwards with just one widely-spoken second language. Indeed, she remains the only Western European country which does not even make just one foreign language compulsory for all her pupils at the secondary school level.

Yet modern teaching facilities have been developed for language studies in all kinds of secondary school, and as will be shown in the subsequent chapter dealing with the growth of European and international schools, several most valuable experiments have been carried out in Britain in that field.

As regards language teaching at the higher education level, generally, in Western Europe, many departments are now engaged in experiments into new approaches and methods for the effective teaching of foreign languages. Reference has already been made to the work of J.A. van Ek and associates, and of Reverend Father J.P. Mooijman in this connection. Teacher training is also being developed in most West

European countries to take account of the need for more and effective language teaching in schools. The institutions for further education - such as Colleges of Further Education in the U.K., Volkuniversteit in the Netherlands, and Volksschulen in West Germany - as well as such establishments as the Open University in the U.K., the Fernuniversitat in West Germany, etc., provide a limited but expanding facility for providing on-going language training for adults who require them to meet their vocational and recreational needs.

It seems that it is in this last area that there is greatest scope for future development. If the problem of creating an effective lingua franca or of establishing a bi-lingual - let alone a multi-lingual - European society is to be tackled effectively, then the recommendations directed to the various national governments may eventually need to assume the form of mandatory requirements, promulgated - either by an emerging federal government of Europe, or by its integral state governments. The need for such enforcement seems to be essential, particularly in the U.K.

If, however, we are not to be obliged to wait until the twenty-first century for an emerging bi-lingual population to assume control of the political, economic and social affairs of Europe, far greater attention needs to be given at once to adult and continuous educational provisions for the learning of languages. We require facilities for adults wishing to study languages, including vocational and recreational courses at colleges, through correspondence courses, or through the media of radio and television, and opportunities for exchanges such as those made possible through the "twinning" of towns - incentives to learn also require to be enhanced by extending provisions for easier, cheaper travel throughout Western Europe. Without this far greater level of motivation and enhanced European consciousness adults, and particularly British adults who have had so much less experience of cosmopolitan living, are

hardly likely to apply themselves to the learning of one anothers' languages on the vast scale which is now required. Such a massive project cannot be accomplished by centralised funding or by the agents of formal education alone. Firms and organisations which stand to derive benefit from the development of a bi-lingual labour force should also be prepared to create incentives for staff willing to go about acquiring linguistic skills, and to provide the financial support and training facilities necessary for their acquisition.

To conclude, acquisition of language skills depends upon motivation and opportunity. Because it is best achieved by the direct method, that is, being called upon to learn in a real-life situation, greater scope for travel, opportunities to meet with other Europeans, and greater mobility of labour have to be seen as concomitant ends along with the amenities for language learning itself.

While however, conceding that acquisition of language competence as advocated in this chapter, may be a very important step towards the achievement of international understanding between Europeans, it certainly does not yet follow that ability to communicate effectively with fellow Europeans would inevitably bring about that understanding.

On the contrary, T. Rendall Davies, while advocating school travel because of its value ... "in equipping (participants) mentally and spiritually to take their place in the world of today", felt obliged to admit that "there is, unfortunately, little or no evidence to support (the) ... assertion ... that ... it promotes international understanding".(1)

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1. T. Rendall Davies, "The Role of Educational Travel in International Understanding with Special Reference to Europe", Section III, Chapter I of The Year Book of Education, 1964; "Education and International Life", Joint Editors, George Z.F. Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys, Evans Brothers Ltd., London (1964) p.289.

Obviously; as evidence by the following quotation, he had similar misgivings with regard to language competence seen as the panacea for all the world's ills:-

> "Wars usually result from the policies pursued by men who are as well educated and as much, if not more, travelled than most. The cynic who said that being able to speak the same language merely enabled them to quarrel without the help of interpretors, might have pointed out that half the wars in history have been civil wars between people who had no difficulty in communication and who understood one another only too well".(2)

Language Studies also need to be complemented not only with travel, but, since this is not always practical, with European Studies. This is clearly in the mind of Derek Hewett, when he argues that, "Knowledge awareness and appreciation of other cultural norms are of course just as, if not more important than pure language competence, and without the former, it could be argued, there is little real hope of greater understanding and empathy between European nations".(2)

It has been said apocryphally, that "Education is wasted on children", and certainly it is a common enough experience amongst teachers that the children's immaturity often prevents them from availing themselves fully of their educational opportunities. However, it certainly is to be hoped that sufficient success is attendant upon the efforts of teachers in opening up the eyes of their pupils to Europe's other people and their cultures, through the study of languages, and through travel and European Studies, for them to acquire a life-long interest or involvement in Europe. In this way, language Studies can hopefully provide just one plank in a bridge towards international understanding for some of the children involved.

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1. T. Rendall Davies, idem., p.289.

2. Derek Hewett, Teacher Liaison Officer for C.I.L.T., on the Subject of Language Learning and European Unity, Centre for Information in Language Teaching and Research, (1984).

In subsequent chapters we turn to an examination of several other elements which must go towards the construction of that bridge, if it is to be effective.

CHAPTER VIII: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 2. EUROPEAN STUDIES: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

There can be no more explicit way of making Europeans aware of Europe and the need for its unification, or for promoting a sense of common European identity - the sense of being European first and a particular nationality or race second - than by teaching about Europe in the schools.

Any systematic study of Europe ought to include the following vital elements; knowledge of the natural regions of Europe, with their distinctive physical features, historical and economic development, and of the people who inhabit each of them, with their own distinctive social and cultural characteristics, in which, while not neglecting the consideration of diversities between regions or peoples - stress ought to be placed upon the unifying strands of structural and climatic affinity, common historical developments and present-day economic and social interrelations between the peoples; knowledge of historical movements of the past which were directed towards some kind of European unity, with consideration given to the possible reasons for their failure; knowledge of the political, economic and cultural groupings and associations which have sprung up in recent years between European nations, and of the spontaneous growth of movements for European unity which has occurred between European peoples. Emphasis here should be placed not merely upon the developments themselves, but upon the ideological motivation lying behind them, the political, social and economic pressures which have reinforced them, and the levels of achievement so far. The aim must be to help motivate the individual, so that he or she can learn to identify with Europe and the European aspirations.

Unfortunately, although this essential role for formal education, and the underlying objectives by which it may be fulfilled, are widely agreed upon by European educationalists, they are no less divided in their approach on how best it should be undertaken.

The English appear to have come down on the side of introducing an additional new subject into a school curriculum already overcrowded as a result of technological, economic and social change, and a reluctance to abandon traditional subjects when introducing innovatory ones. The case for European Studies is, at first sight, impressive; since it ensures that the entire subject of Europe, and the unifying processes it is undergoing, is dealt with systematically, and by teachers with some personal motivation for the task, instead of by subject teachers who may or may not be interested in the European cause.

Most other European countries have, by contrast, advocated the introduction of a European dimension into the teaching of the existing school subjects - in particular modern languages, geography, history, civics and economics. These countries include the Netherlands, West Germany and France amongst them. On close examination this approach has much to recommend it. To begin with - European Studies is not an academic discipline like geography, history and economics, but an amalgam of these. Each such subject has its European implications, and the presentation of them in this way obviates the necessity to introduce yet another subject into an already overcrowded school curriculum. Furthermore, in theory at least, every student at all stages of his or her school career can, potentially be taught these subjects with a European dimension, whereas European Studies as taught in the United Kingdom, is usually only offered at secondary level and as an option only for some students, at particular ages or in certain ability ranges.

The controversy continues, with the S.E.R.C. at least in the U.K., becoming increasingly sympathetic to the continental viewpoint. It would, however, surely be logical to adopt an eclectic approach - encouraging the introduction of some European Studies into the curriculum for all pupils whatever their age or abilities, but also encouraging subject teachers to face up to the European implications of their subject wherever it occurs. The adoption of both explicit and implicit approaches at least provides some hope of each pupil being reached by a systematic coverage of the European field at some stage of his or her school career, and in addition being introduced to the European implications of all their academic studies so that, hopefully, they can permeate their future thinking throughout adult life. Whichever trend does eventually dominate, and whether or not the relative strengths and weaknesses of each are recognised in future, it is relevant to examine both approaches here - as reflected in the recommendations and activities of the various international organisations which have already come under consideration, and to look at the work going on in the formal educational extablishments of each of the main countries being studied.

The contributions made by the E.E.C. towards the "Extension of knowledge about Europe and the European institutions amongst its citizens" have already been outlined above, but they warrant a closer examination here. The Community, as already observed, was aware of the need to promote European consciousness from its inception, but it was only after 1974 that it began to turn its attention to exploring the contribution which might be made to the cause by schools. From that time onwards it set about "stimulating the development of studies of Europe" in a variety of ways. It recognised that Europe might be studied as a cultural adjunct to modern European languages, through the media of other subjects such as geography, history or civics, or by

adopting a new interdisciplinary approach - that of European Studies.(1) It also advocated curricular research, exchange of ideas on the subject between member countries, the establishment of teacher fellowships to enable secondary and post-secondary teachers to benefit from exchanges, and the development of pilot schemes for the promotion of initial and in-service training schemes in the field of European Studies, as well as support for other European organisations engaged in "fostering co-operation and development in this field".(2)

Through the Council's Action Programme in the Field of Education published in 1976,(3) it was resolved to put forward proposals to implement the various measures advocated, as outlined on p.154 above. In pursuance of this resolution Commissioner Guido Brunner, who was also responsible for the publication of a comparable set of proposals on "The Teaching of Languages in the Community", submitted, in the same month, his proposals for the "Study of the European Community in Schools" to the Council.(4) In it he argued that, in the light of researches into the state of European Studies in the Community countries, which revealed a general lack of knowledge about the work of the Community itself, such study ought to include the following "three main areas" during the full span of the pupils educational career:-

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1. Commission of the European Communies, "Education in the European Community", Bulletin of the European Communities, Supplement 3/74, pp.13-14, paragraphs 50-52.

2. Commission of the European Communities, op.cit., p.14, paragraph 55.

3. Resolution of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an Action Programme in the Field of Education, No. C38/1, Part IV, paragraph 5.

4. Communication from the Commission to the Council, "Educational activities with a European content: The Study of the European Community in Schools", COM (78) final, Brussels, 8-6-78.

The Community in its European context; historical, political and geographical;

The Community in action; how it works, what it has achieved, and what it intends to do in the future, and;

The Community in the world context; relations between it and the Super-powers, other industrial countries, the Developing World, and the United Nations.

The subject matter and the treatment, however, should be left to the discretion of individual teachers, schools and countries to handle in what appears to them to be the most appropriate way, central, however, to the central objective - that of ensuring "that each pupil should have an opportunity to learn about the Community by means of a coherent sequence of appropriate studies throughout his career in the primary and secondary school.(1)

To this end a co-ordinated strategy is essential, which has been accepted in principle at national and Community levels. Such a strategy should include:-

(a) Systematic encouragement of curricular provision in all Community schools for the study of the Community.

(b) A Community-wide curriculum development scheme to search out new approaches to study of the Community in schools.

(c) Promotion of initial and in-service teacher training programmes for teaching about the Community in all member states, and support for the teacher training institutions which serve to provide it.

(d) Provision of support facilities and resources for teachers engaged in teaching about the Community, and;

(e) Inclusion of Community Studies as an aspect of the work of the Community's Education Information Network.

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1. Communication from the Commission to the Council, idem., p.4, paragraph 12.

To achieve this, national education authorities, higher education and teacher training institutions concerned with Community Studies, associations of teachers involved in relevant disciplinary areas, e.g. geography, history, civics, economics, should learn to collaborate. At that time the now defunct C.E.E. in Brussels, the demise of which has already been referred to on p. 187 above, was recommended as a suitable co-ordinating body.(1) To facilitate curricular provisions, it was suggested that member states should be allowed three years to review, and where necessary advise on possible modifications, to existing school curricula. To encourage progress, a colloquium of experts, at which problems and achievements could be aired, would be held at the end of another eighteen months, and finally a formal progress report to the Community Education Committee would be required at the end of three years.(2)

The Commission also proposed a scheme for curricular development projects designed to encourage effective study of the Community in schools. This would involve encouraging member states to propose projects, out of which the Commission would select those calculated to serve most effectively as a test-bed for newly-designed materials and newly-devised approaches. Schools in selected localities taking part in the schemes would be provided with teaching materials, and the teachers and pupils would have the opportunity to participate in short-term exchange schemes. The Community would pay 50% subsidy towards such projects, and at the end of three years a report would be published to cover the scheme as a whole.(3)

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1. Communication from the Commission to the Council, op.cit., p.6, para 19.

2. Communication from the Commission to the Council, ibid., pp.6-7, paras: 20 & 21.

3. Communicarion from the Commission to the Council, ibid., pp.7-8, paras: 22 - 27.

Education authorities in the member states should encourage institutions engaged in initial and in-service training of teachers to expand provisions for teachers wishing to learn about the Community, and find out how best to present this knowledge in the classroom. Working links between the teacher training institutions themselves should be encouraged, and the Commission would design and support a scheme for short and medium term study visits and exchanges for serving teachers specialising in teaching about the Community.(1)

The Commission had already at that time, 1978, compiled a catalogue of relevant teaching materials, written and audio-visual, for teachers. It was also proposed to publicise the information and teaching materials available to teachers through a growing number of local resource centres, by means of the Community's new Educational Information Network.(2)

Whereas the Community, as observed above, lays particular stress upon Community Studies in particular, since it sees itself as the political embodiment of Europe, the Council of Europe takes the much wider view of advocating the widest-possible view of Europe, not merely as the Community countries of Western Europe, but as the geographical continent.

The Council of Europe, whose contribution to the cause of European unity has already been briefly described on pp.158-73 above, has, through its Educational and Cultural Committee, the C.D.C.C. or C.C.C., come down strongly in favour of the practice of investing the established school subjects - such as geography, history, economics and civics - with a "European Dimension", and of teaching about Europe as a cultural background to modern European languages studies, rather than

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1. Communication from the Commission to the Council, op.cit., pp.8-9, paras: 28-31.

2. Communication from the Commission to the Council, ibid., p.9. paras: 32-34.

developing European Studies as a separate subject, which appears to be an approach unique to British schools.

As regards geography, the C.C.C. has sought to encourage the production of text-books which make use of up-to-date information on the individual European countries and avoid the employment of out-dated or atypical regional stereo-types, which may often be adopted out of ignorance or the desire to establish impressive contrasts. To help teachers avoid pitfalls of this kind, the C.C.C. has organised four conferences on the revision of geography text-books and atlases, in close collaboration with the George Eckert Institute in Braunschweig, West Germany. The C.C.C. has also encouraged the production of a whole range of films about the regional geography of Europe, and the writing of books on the teaching of geography or with a suitable European dimension, several of which have already been published by the C.C.C. Amongst these may be cited the report on the present state of geographical studies in the schools of Western Europe by J.W. Morris in the European Curriculum Series: No.10 Geography, 1976; that written by H. Meijer and Verduin-Muller on the work of Information and Documentation Centre for the Geography of the Netherlands (1964-1979), under the title - "Towards an accurate Geographical image of the Netherlands", and a compilation of various national contributions by eminent geographers in response to the brief of how his or her country ought to be described in secondary school courses elsewhere in Europe, under the collective title - "The Countries of Europe as seen by their geographers" Edited by E.C. Marchant, Harrap, London, 1970, which included a British contribution by Professor Gordon East entitled "Europe and its regions".

In history, seven conferences have been held relating to improving the quality of textbooks in this subject, covering not merely political

and military - but also social, economic and cultural aspects. With this latter aspect in mind, the C.C.C. has also organised a whole series of major art exhibitions designed "to demonstrate the universality of the European spirit through the ages and the common artistic heritage".(1)

At the first conference organised by the Council on the teaching of history, held at Elsinore, 1965, an attempt was made to draw up a list of themes for presenting a European viewpoint to the teaching of the history of Europe. The full version of this scheme is included in the C.C.C. report of their 1978 teachers' seminar - "Europe in the Secondary School Curriculum",(2) but a summarised account will suffice here.

> 1. The Classical heritage-Greek, Roman and Byzantine civilisations, and the influences of the great religious faiths of Judaism, Christianity and Islam. 2. The Great Migrations as they affected Europe, 3. Feudalism, 4. The Church, 5. Medieval town and country, 6. The Crusades, 7. Representative Institutions and legal principles, 8. Medieval thought and art, 9. Humanism and the Renaissance, 10. The Reformation, 11. Discovery and Colonialism, 12. The rise of Capitalism, 13. The rise of the nation state, 14. Absolute and Representative Government, 15. Classicism and Baroque, 16. The Age of the Enlightenment, 17. The Industrial and Agrarian Revolutions, 18. The revolutions of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, 19. Liberalism, Nationalism and Socialism, 20. Intellectual, artistic, scientific and technical developments in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, 21. European Imperialism, 22. The Two World Wars, 23. Democracy, Fascism and Communism, 24. Europe and its place in the world today, and 25. Trends towards European unity which have occurred in the course of European history.(3)

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1. C.C.C. Memorandum prepared for the Conference, "Co-operation in Europe since 1945", held Braunschweig 3-7th December 1979, DECS/EGT(79) Strasbourg, 23rd October 1979, p.4.

2. Report of first Council of Europe Teachers' Seminar, "Europe in the Secondary School Curriculum", Donaueschingen, September 1978, DECS/EGT(78) 37-E, Strasbourg, 1978, Appendix I. pp.31-32.

3. Report of first Council of Europe's Teachers' Seminar, op.cit., Strasbourg, 1978, Appendix I. pp.31-32.

The C.C.C. has also published or promoted a whole series of history textbooks or books for the teacher of history. Prominent amongst the former being E. Bruley and E.H. Dance's "A History of Europe", Sythoff, Leydon, 1960, and "History Teaching and History Textbook Revision", edited by O-E. Schuddekopf, published by the C.C.C. in 1967; and amongst the latter the Report on the present status of historical studies in Western European Schools by E.E.Y. Hales, in the European Curriculum Series, No.8 History, 1973, "The place of history in secondary teaching", E.H. Dance, Harrap, 1970, and the Report of the Council of Europe's teachers' seminar on "New Trends in History Teaching in Upper Secondary Education", Donaueschingen, 8th November 1979, Strasbourg, 1980.

As regards social studies and civics, the C.C.C.'s aim has been to make courses more relevant and stimulating to students, in accordance with the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers' resolution on civics and European education.(1) This resolution recommends that:-

> Governments ... do everything within their power to ensure that all the disciplines concerned ... history, geography, literature, modern languages - contributed to the creation of European consciousness ... with a view to rendering the European aspect of civics teaching more interesting and ... effective (it is necessary to) encourage the teaching profession to go beyond a purely static description of European Institutions, by explaining their function in the light of the vital interdependence of the European peoples and of Europe's place in the world, and by attempting to bring out the dynamic aspects of the European integration process and the concessions, indeed sacrifices, that it entails, and the political and cultural activities, even tensions it may create.(2)

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1. Committee of Ministers' Resolution (64)11 on "Civics and European Education", quoted in the C.C.C. Memorandum to the Conference, "Co-operation in Europe since 1945", DECS/EGT(79)83, Strasbourg, 23rd October 1979, Appendix I. p.7.

2. Committee of Ministers' Resolution (64)11 on "Civics and European Education", quoted in the C.C.C. Memorandum to the Conference, "Co-operation in Europe since 1945", DECS/EGT(79)83, Strasbourg, 23rd October 1979, Appendix I. p.8.

Practical recommendations included provision of up-to-date documentation for both teachers and pupils, and the inclusion of preparation for the teaching of civics in a European context in general professional teacher training courses, the use of refresher courses for teachers, the encouragement of family-school collaboration, and the fullest-possible use of the mass media and audio-visual aids. It was stated to be the duty of "European and other international organisations" to assume responsibility for bringing about developments such as these.

Books published or promoted by the C.C.C. for the teacher of social and civic education have included "Towards a European Civic Education in the first phase of Secondary Education", Y. Rogers, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1969, "Political Education for Teen-agers", W. Langeveld, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1980, and the Report on the present status of"Social and Civic Education in Western European Schools" by W. Bonney Rust, in the European Curriculum Series, No.9, Social and Civic Education, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1974.

The C.C.C. has done all it could to promote interdisciplinary studies, particularly during the 1970s when several conferences were held, one on interdisciplinary work in the natural sciences held in Exeter, 1974; another upon the introduction of new elements of knowledge into upper secondary school curricula in Luxembourg that same year; one concerned with human sciences held in Strasbourg during 1976, and finally that concerned with developments and problems in developing interdisciplinary courses in secondary education, which was held in Liverpool during 1977, under the auspices of the Department of Education and Science. Many of its findings were subsequently published in "Innovation in Secondary Education in Europe", by R.A. Wake, V. Marbeau and A.D.C. Peterson, C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1979, which includes articles concerned with interdisciplinarity, autonomous study and the introduction

of new elements of knowledge into the upper secondary school curriculum.

On balance, however, it would be fair to infer that the C.C.C. favours teaching through the established disciplines, since, when the conference memorandum was published in anticipation of the conference - "Co-operation in Europe since 1945", it was explicitly concerned with "the C.C.C's work on the teaching of history, geography and civics in secondary schools" - and no reference was made to interdisciplinary work, as related to European Studies.

The work of the European Association of Teachers, concerned almost wholly with the promotion of European consciousness amongst teachers and their charges has been considered fairly exhaustively on pp.183-187 above. Likewise the contributions of the Sussex European Research Centre (S.E.R.C.) and its Dutch counterpart - The Centrum voor europese vorming in het nederlandse onderwijs (C.E.V.N.O.), which share very similar objectives, formed the subject matter of pp.192-196 above. It therefore remains to enquire - first, what has formal education contributed so far to the growth of a European identity, and to the nurture of European consciousness in Europe's rising generation - particularly in the U.K., the Netherlands, West Germany and France; and secondly, what more could, and should it undertake in pursuit of these objectives?

As already observed, the U.K., alone of the above countries, has adopted its own characteristic approach to the achievement of the above objectives - that of introducing yet another subject - European Studies - into an already crowded school curriculum. Because of her distinctive academic traditions, which reserve the right to determine the contents of its own curriculum to every, university, college and school and which measure a subject's status in terms of its examinability - which in turn helps decide its eligibility for staff and other resources in short supply - it is the Examination Boards, rather than government

recommendations, which help to decide the contents of European Studies courses in schools. It is therefore to their examination syllabuses that we must now turn.

Sussex University first introduced European Studies at Tertiary Level during the academic year 1961-1962. In 1982 the Arts side of the university included thirty major subjects, some of which could be studied in more than one of the five schools of study making up the Arts sector. The following subjects could be read as major subjects in the school of European Studies - classical and medieval studies, economics, English, French, geography, German studies, history, history of art, intellectual history, international relations, Italian studies, law, linguistics, philosophy, politics, Russian studies and sociology. In addition to their major subject - students undertook contextuals - subjects intended to provide a "European dimension" to their major subject. These contextuals included one of several language options, and several common core courses on European history, literature, politics and society. A year abroad at a European university, spent studying the language option, comprised the third year of this four year degree course. Indeed, most of the university-based European Studies courses are of four years duration, counting the year abroad, since only in this way, according to Professor S.C. Holt of Keynes College in the University of Kent, can the students "have more to offer than a traditional dual honours student", and be enabled to acquire some personal insight into the culture and life-style of just one European country.(1)

Other degree courses, however, such as that in Modern European Studies of Trent Polytechnic, are less ambitious. Here the course is

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1. Professor S.C. Holt, "What to look for in a European Studies Degree", in "Teaching about Europe", European Studies in higher and further education, Volume 9, No.3, Summer 1982, S.E.R.C., Brighton, pp. 1-3.

of three years duration, and does not include a year abroad. In their first year the students study three specialist subjects, and in their second and third years - two subjects chosen from English, French and German literature, history, geography, international relations, politics, economics and sociology. These subjects are, however, studied within an interdisciplinary matrix afforded by the "idea of Europe" course, which entails a balanced examination of the material and ideological aspects of Europe today. This includes study of the human heritage in the first year, while in the second and third years attention is given to the impact of industrialisation and of world politics upon Europe, as well as to the emergence of European consciousness and a sense of identity.

Not only does higher education help indirectly to influence the contents of secondary school courses, but it also determines them directly through its oversight of the G.C.E. Examination Boards, because the G.C.E. Examinations double up as entry qualifications for higher education and school-leaving certificates.

There are two main G.C.E O/A Level Mode I Examinations in European Studies, those established by the Associated Examining Board (A.E.B.) and the University of London respectively.

The A.E.B. European Studies G.C.E. O/A Mode I Examination - 175 consists of one three hour paper worth 70 marks and a unit of course-work undertaken by individual research worth a further 30 marks. The written paper includes questions on the historical development of modern Europe, viewed as the entire geographical continent. It also examines the student's knowledge of contemporary Europe, from the geographical, political, and socio-economic aspects. The coursework is intended to enable the student to undertake a critical examination of a small area of the main syllabus which particularly interests him or her.

The University of London G.C.E. A/O Mode I Examination-817 includes

two written papers and does not involve any project work. The first written paper is of three hours duration and is worth two thirds of the final mark, while the second paper lasts for one and a half hours and is worth the remaining third. Again, Europe is interpreted as the entire geographical continent.

The syllabus for Section A of Paper I is concerned with the development of contemporary Europe since 1945, while that for Section B deals with the economic, human and social geography of Europe - particularly in so far as this throws light upon the regional disparities of wealth and economic development, and the problems which confront various regions of Europe, or Europe as a whole. Paper II is concerned with contemporary themes not specifically considered in Paper I, such as communications and the mass media, the environment, rural society, urban and regional planning problems, migratory workers in Europe, their education and culture, and Europe's relations with the rest of the world - including the Super-powers and the countries of the Third World.

The A.E.B. proposes to replace the O/A Examination with an O Level in European Studies as from 1985-6. It is intended that it will be composed of two papers, one of two and three quarter hours duration and worth 70% of the total marks; and another of one and a quarter hours worth 30% of the total marks. For this examination, too, Europe would be construed as meaning the entire geographical continent. In Paper I, Section A would be concerned with the physical structure of Europe, the location of countries, the major economic resources, the population - its distribution and the main ethnic, religious and linguistic groups included, the principal twentieth century ideologies, political changes which have occurred in Europe since 1945, and the emergence and growth of the main international institutions. Section B would consider the

main economic, social and political factors operating within Europe, and between Europe and the rest of the world. In Paper II at least two optional topics would be examined in depth from the following list - migration of labour, the environment, conservation and pollution, human rights, the Arts in twentieth century Europe, and education systems.

According to the European Association of Teachers (U.K. Section), in 1981, the A.E.B. O/A European Studies Examination was taken by 501 candidates in 42 centres, while the London A/O European Studies Examination was sat by 270 candidates in 31 centres.(1)

There are, in addition, several Mode II or III type O Levels in European Studies, devised and administered by particular schools to meet their own peculiar curricular needs and objectives, but moderated by an examination board. Examples of these include the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate's Mode III G.C.E. O Level devised by the Ingatestone Anglo-European School, which is more appropriately considered in the context of international schools - in Chapter 13. There is also the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board's Mode III O Level which has been devised by Goole Grammar School, and unique in having been developed for its language students; not as in the majority of cases, to replace language studies for those pupils unable to cope with them, but to provide serious academic language students with wider insight into European culture.

The Goole Grammar School Syllabus is specifically intended, therefore, to extend the scope of the Oxford and Cambridge O Level French or German course. Paper I, worth 100 marks, is the O Level Paper I in French or German, which is set and marked by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board. Paper II, worth 60 marks, is set and marked by the school and moderated by the Board. There is also an Oral

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1. Mary Duce and David Anderson, Editors, "European Studies - past, present, future", EAT/UK Section, (1981) p.11.

Examination based on Paper II, conducted by the school, but taped and moderated by the Board, which is worth a further 50 marks. Finally each pupil is required to undertake two personal assignments, of 3,000 words, the subjects chosen by the candidates in consultation with their teachers, and each worth 20 marks (ten for evidence, ten for support of conclusions by the evidence) i.e. 40 marks in all, making up an aggregate mark of 250.

The syllabus for Paper II covers four main aspects of European Studies including:-

A. The historical background to European conflict and twentieth century moves towards integration.

B. The Political institutions and social policies, not only of individual states of Western and Eastern Europe, but also of principal international organisations such as the E.E.C., and Comecon.

C. Agriculture, trade and industry in selected European states, and the impact of the E.E.C., and Comecon upon these.

D. European Culture - aspects of art, architecture and music. Reading of one text in its original language - French or German - and one Russian text in translation on which some critical discussion is required.

It is impossible to give more than a very general description of the C.S.E. and C.E.E. Examinations offered, and to describe one of each as a concrete example. Just as the Goole Grammar School O Level serves the needs of academic linguists, whereas Ingatestone is concerned with making students aware of the progress towards European integration, so, too, a similar range of objectives is reflected in various C.S.E.s and C.E.E.s.

In all there are four Mode I C.S.E. Examination syllabuses -

East Anglian, South Western, Southern Regional and West Midlands, and eight Mode III syllabuses - those of the East Anglian Board for the Herts Modern Language Teachers' Association, the North West Regional Board for Darwen Moorland High School, the South East Regional Board for Glebeland School, Cranleigh, the Southern Regional Board for the Oxfordshire 'blanket' syllabus, the Southern Regional Board for the Larkmead School, the South East Regional Board for the East Sussex Teachers' Consortium, the South Western Board for a group of Somerset teachers, and that of the North Regional Board.

According to the European Association of Teachers, U.K. Section, the bulk of candiates were in 1981, being examined by just four of the various C.S.E. Regional Examination Boards; - the West Midlands Board, the Southern Regional C.S.E. Board, the East Anglian Board, and the East Midlands Board.

The West Midlands Board had 96 centres with 1,878 candidates sitting their Mode I Examination with language options, but only 576 candidates from 38 centres undertaking Mode I without a language option, and 570 at 17 centres undertaking Mode III with a language option.

The Southern Regional C.S.E. Board had 55 centres with 1,796 candidates undertaking a Mode III examination with a language option, but only 33 centres with a total of 862 candidates for a Mode I which included an optional language option.

The East Anglian Board had both Mode I and Mode III Examinations both without a language element. Of these there were 24 centres for the Mode III with 849 candidates, and 15 centres for Mode I with 296 candidates.

Finally the Mode III Examination offered by the East Midlands Board attracted 70 candidates at its 6 centres.(1)

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1. Mary Duce and David Anderson (Editors) "European Studies - past, present, future", EAT/UK Section (1981) p.13.

In addition, there are six examination boards which offer European Studies for a Certificate of Extended Education (C.E.E.). Four Mode I syllabuses are provided by the East Midlands Regional Board, the Southern-Joint G.C.E. and C.S.E. Board, the Southern Regional Board, and the North West Regional Board, which sets the written paper for Winstanley College, Wigan, and two Mode III syllabuses - the West York and Lindsey Regional Board's syllabus for Goole Grammar School, and the Associated Lancs School Board's syllabus for Ducie High School.

As already observed, some are designed to serve the needs of pupils who cannot cope with a foreign language at all, or else only at the most simplistic level - thereby providing relief to the language departments concerned, while others are concerned with more worthy aims such as the promotion of European consciousness, understanding of contemporary European problems and developments, knowledge of European society and culture, to help students make meaningful contact with other European societies, and so on. The main elements used in the make up of such syllabuses, apart from language elements, include recent European history, regional, agricultural and economic studies in Europe, studies of contemporary society, religion, politics, recreation, education, etc., in selected areas of Europe, study of the various international institutions which have emerged in Europe since 1945, and study of European culture - music, art, drama, literature and architecture.

Perhaps more innovative than the syllabus contents have been the forms of examination assessment adopted - in an attempt to get away from traditional academic norms. These have included multiple-choice questions, individual research projects, course-work assessment, all intended to make the examinations less dependent upon communication skills or written work undertaken under formal examination conditions, so as to reach a wider sector of the child population. It is hoped

that the examples cited below give some idea of the innovative diversities - both in terms of contents and modes of assessment - that are displayed within the genre they represent.

The West Midlands Examination Board's C.S.E. Mode I syllabus in European Studies is made up of three sections. Section I, with 40% of the total marks, can be examined in one of three options. Option A. involves foreign language study - French, German or Spanish - and tests the students' ability to read, write, speak and understand the spoken as well as the written word in the chosen language. Option B. includes an additional paper on the history and institutions of the E.E.C., plus a much more superficial language study which only tests oral and aural skills, and does not require evidence of the ability to read or write in the selected language. Both these elements of Option B. are worth 20%. Option C. entails the same written paper on the history and institutions of the E.E.C. (20%), plus a paper on one aspect of European culture and modern life selected from amongst the following - dictators and revolutions in the last two hundred years, European settlement studies, comparative studies from four prescribed European economies, the legacy of Classical civilisation in Europe, and the political institutions of selected East European powers, which is also worth 20% of the total marks.

Section II is a one and a half hour paper, Paper III: General Background. Part A., European Background, is a multiple-choice section worth 10 marks, whole Part B., Study of One Country, is worth 20 marks. This one country is either France, Germany or Spain - in the case of students studying that language for Section I., or it is Italy, Greece or Poland for the others. For the country chosen, students are questioned on specific topics such as family, food and drink, education, transport, as well as on specific regions. The two parts of Section II

are together worth a further 30% of total marks.

Section III Project Work, is worth the final 30% of the total mark. It consists either of two projects-each of about 2,000 words - and each worth 15 marks, or one larger project of 4-5,000 words worth the whole 30%. The projects involve comparative studies of at least three European countries - chosen from a prescribed list involving countries from all over Europe. Likewise the topic compared must be chosen from a prescribed list.

The C.E.E. Mode I syllabus considered is the Southern Joint G.C.E. and C.S.E. Board's C.E.E. in European Studies. This joint board is made up of the South West Regional, Southern Regional, Associated Examining and Southern Universities' Joint Boards. This examination comprises a common core paper of two hours' duration and worth 30% of the final mark, and two work modules - each worth 35% of the final mark. The common core paper is a formal examination paper embracing a range of topics already covered in the work modules. The material required to answer the questions is included in the question paper, since the paper is designed to test skills rather than knowledge.

There is a list of fifteen modules from which the candidate must select two. One only of these is designed to assess basic proficiency in a foreign language - and here the 35 marks are awarded as follows - 14 for listening comprehension, 14 for reading comprehension and 7 for the oral. The other work modules are awarded marks on the following basis - 12½% for conceptual understanding and recall of facts, 12½% for individual enquiry, and 10% for the cogent presentation of relevant material. For the language module, which is set and examined by the board, candidates are prescribed an active vocabulary of 250 basic words and 50 phrases in one of French, German, Russian or Spanish. They are expected to have an additional passive vocabulary of common road signs,

public notices and menu terms. The prescribed vocabulary is derived from Phrase Books recommended as basic textbooks. For any of the other modules, chosen from a prescribed list - defence, European medicine, Eastern Europe, the E.E.C., European institutions, European resources, family life in Europe, Government and change, Languages in Europe, Leisure, Literature, the Arts, Peoples of Europe, a regional study and transport are included, the work has to be submitted in a folder which may include up to 12 pieces of classwork, homework, individual topics, fieldwork and research data, or individual contributions to group projects.

Enough has been written to establish the distinctive nature of the British approach to the study of Europe. This approach is at once more far-reaching than that of its continental counterparts - who aim to invest each subject on the curriculum with a European Dimension - because it alone makes possible a complete and rounded syllabus instead; and less-effectual than theirs - in that it only reaches a minority of secondary school pupils in most cases. It remains to consider how European Studies is conducted in practice - in the higher and further sector, and in the schools, of England and Wales.

The Trent Polytechnic "Idea of Europe" course, already referred to on p.274 above, is laid out in a chronological framework. Thus in year one students study the medieval concept of Christendom and the factors which gave rise to a European identity - language; ethnicity; economic, social and political patterns and institutions; and religious, intellectual and cultural traditions. They also study the period between the Renaissance and the Enlightenment - including the rise of the nation state, of capitalism and colonialism, and the related changes in political thought and philosophy, culture and society. The course is conducted through an overall programme of lectures, with a selection of

"at depth" topics pursued through tutorials and seminars. During years two and three the aim is to study the most recent historical developments, and the character of contemporary European society and thought, as well as seeking answers to such questions as - What is the primary allegiance of modern Europeans? In what way has contact with others affected the European self-image? Is there an authentic identity for modern Europe? Dr. Jeff Hill has claimed for this course that it provides an effective synthesiser to the specialised disciplines involved on the degree course, and also that "a modified version of the course" is being used for students of Art and Design," as well as to provide an "extension programme for mature students with a background of varied subjects".(1) An even more dramatic claim by Dr. Hill is that "at the same time, it is relatively value free in that it contains none of the self-fulfilling prophecies of other European Studies courses which seem to set out with the intention of 'proving' the inevitability of West European unity".(2)

M.J. Hendy has described the situation at one College of Technology in the south east of England where European Studies is taught flexibly, for students seeking to combine it with several other subjects at A Level, or on completion of several O Levels, or simply as an "interest". A number of teachers are involved, including the geography and language specialists, and the college has an established tradition of cheap-day excursions to France and Belgium.

> "In 1977 European Studies was added to the list of subjects with the O/A (A.E.B.) Syllabus as the basis. There are currently (1980-81) twenty students on register - but this includes a mixture of first year, second year, and one year students. The A.E.B. recommends that the subject is studied for two years for at least three hours per week.

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1. Dr. Jeff Hill, Dept. of Geography and History, Trent Polytechnic, "Modern European Studies at Trent Polytechnic", in Teaching about Europe, Volume 9, No.3, S.E.R.C., Brighton, Summer 1982, p.8.

2. Dr. Jeff Hill, ibid., p.8.

> (The College) now operates a flexible timetable for this course, enabling students to choose an intensive one year course at six hours per week, or a two year course at three hours per week. Thus, while all students have a common core course at which all twenty are present, there are also special seminar-sized groups which permit a greater freedom of discussion and more concentration on the individual .... A feature of the flexible arrangement is that a number of students voluntarily turn up at seminars and join in the discussion - including those not actually taking the subject".(1)

To provide a wholly contrasted picture of teaching European Studies in a comprehensive school, where a wider ability range and far greater numbers of pupils are involved, it is relevant to consider the following account of his work provided by C.P.V. Ellington, Headmaster of the Cecil Jones High School, Southend-on-Sea, which caters for the entire 11-18 age range.

> "The original aim of the 1973 C.S.E. Mode III Syllabus was to provide a portmanteau background subject to fill in elements missing in other closely related option choices ... To avoid fragmentation on one hand and an arbitrary choice of 'topics' on the other, detailed work was concentrated on Benelux, France, Germany, Italy, Austria and Switzerland.
>
> Basic historical and geographic background is acquired mainly through coursework from a vast variety of mainly non-school reference material ... assembled into a European Studies library. Presuming on the knowledge thus gained out of lesson time, the teachers involved can concentrate on the ordering of this material and consideration of the problems and day to day affairs of these countries ... seen ... specifically in relation and comparison with both the United Kingdom and the Eastern Block.
>
> Much use is made of newspapers, ... travel guides ... time-tables ... and ... video-tape recordings ... to provide a cultural background and not only a factual one, specific sessions during the two-year course are assigned to art, architecture and music, ... sessions on food and drink are also added. While specialists in these various fields are called upon, the course as a whole is firmly in the hands of the co-ordinator of European Studies.
>
> The C.S.E. Examination arising from this is entirely non-linguistic and consists of a written paper worth 50%, course work 15%, a project 15%, and a viva voce in which 20% of the total marks can be gained ... Individual candidates are questioned ... partly on the contents of

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1. M.J. Hendy, "European Studies - current practice", in European Studies - past, present, future, E.A.T./U.K. Section, 1981, pp.43-44.

> their coursework and project ... and partly on their general background knowledge of Europe as a whole.
>
> However varied the background library, however sophisticated the audio-visual equipment, there is no substitute for going to see for oneself ... We therefore determined that every pupil taking European Studies would have at least one extended trip abroad (four to fourteen days) as well as a number of shorter visits. These are not holidays but carefully prepared and richly documented journeys ... prepared for ... as well as being followed by careful debriefing.
>
> There was for some years reluctance on the part of highly academic pupils ... to take a subject whose outcome would be a 'mere C.S.E.' However, since the A/O Level European Studies syllabus of London University has settled into a less esoteric fashion, preparation for that examination has run parallel to our C.S.E. work. It has been recognised by parents and pupils that such a subject is ideally what is needed ... and now we have two groups studying from the beginning of the fourth year - one aiming directly at the A/O courses, the other remaining with our C.S.E. which is, as a matter of course, also taken by the former group".(1)

It may be seen, then, that in the United Kingdom, European Studies may be taught to various age groups, at different levels, and for quite different objectives. The provision of Mode III examinations has helped cater for these varied needs.

As already observed, the Continental countries, following the recommendations of the European Community and the Council of Europe more closely than in the United Kingdom, have chosen to encourage schools to present the "European Dimension" through most of the established subjects taught, rather than developing European Studies as an additional subject which has then to be intruded into an already crowded curriculum. It is perfectly valid to argue that this approach leaves teachers free to present the European Dimension to all classes, right across the ability range, and in all types of school, but from

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1. C.P.V. Ellington, "European Studies - An account of the practical application of this subject at one 11-18 Comprehensive school", in European Studies - past, present, and future, E.A.T./U.K. Section, 1981, Appendix D.

personal enquiries it would seem that this may not be so perfect an opportunity as might, at first sight, appear. To begin with, State imposed subject syllabuses inevitably restrict the size of the European element included, and teachers not pro-European by conviction do not necessarily take up their prerogative to include it. Furthermore, whereas by definition a teacher of European Studies has at least some concern for the subject, and contrives to present it coherently, even the most highly-dedicated teacher cannot hope to co-ordinate the European elements from one subject to another, or one class or school to another. Thus the European element need not be anything more, in practice, than a series of disjointed topics taught intermittently during the course of a pupil's school career.

In the Netherlands, for example, the situation displayed in schools visited in North Brabant was certainly not ideal. For example, the local primary school in Haaren did not appear to be presenting a European Dimension through any subject whatsoever, and the Headmaster was not particularly sympathetic to such an objective.

However, the situation at secondary level was more encouraging. De heer Pim van Elsdingen and de heer Cornelis v.d. Bergh, specialist teachers in English and Geography respectively, at the Roman Catholic Secondary School, R.K.S.G. in Durendael, a HAVO/MAVO School in Brabant, were emphatic that the government curriculum or Rykscholenleerplan, is, in practice, not so restrictive as it might appear to British eyes where the notion of academic freedom is cherished. This Rykscholenleerplan was laid down in 1972 in an effort to ensure some consistancy of academic content between different kinds of parallel secondary school - so that the mobility of pupils between the different types of school was facilitated. Teachers, however, are able to interpret it quite freely, and find adequate scope for teaching European Studies if they have a mind to do so.

In 1977 Henk Oonk, Director of C.E.V.N.O. in Alkmaar, researched and published a pamphlet "European Dimension in Education", in which he undertook to assess the effectiveness of the United Kingdom and Netherland approaches to teaching about Europe. With reference to his own country, he cited history and the study of the constitution, geography, economics and civics as the subject areas offering most scope for a European Dimension, while he also conceded that "the teaching of foreign languages also offers elements of European education".(1)

He went on to analyse the curricula for these subjects - and the scope they afforded for the introduction of a European Dimension.

In History and the study of the Constitution Oonk noted that the "aim of the subject (was the acquisition of) knowledge and insight into important historical structures and processes, contributing to the education of the pupils as conscious bearers of culture. There is a preference for a thematic treatment ... (but) the selection of themes is up to the teacher ... In the first year of secondary school (brugklas) the curriculum gives provision for the treatment of prehistoric (classical) and middle ages. The lower section of general secondary education (is concerned with) general and Dutch history to the present time. The upper section (examines) the ... past 50 years more profoundly. There, too, the institutions of the State of ... the Netherlands, their ... structure and function (are studied). ... there appears to be room for a theme like 'co-operation in Europe'. This theme can be worked out in detail in both the lower and the higher section. There is a particular(ly) interesting link to be made between the history of European integration and its influence on our institutions of the State".(2)

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1. Henk Oonk, "European Dimension in Education - a comparative study of the Netherlands and the United Kingdom", C.E.V.N.O., Alkmaar, November 1977, p.15, paragraph 3 : 1.

2. Henk Oonk, op.cit., pp.15-17, paragraphs 3.1.1.

In geography Oonk argues that the study of the cultures of other people forces us to accept them and acquire respect for them, and to accept the relativity of our own values. It is "this philosophy"(which) forms a perfect introduction of European themes. In the first year of general secondary education Europe or a number of European countries are treated. The Brugklas offers an ideal opportunity for introducing the European Community. The second and third years, dealing with the world outside Europe, have few points of reference, but beyond the third year the curriculum provides many opportunities to realise the European dimension. In the fourth, fifth and sixth year of VWO the following problems of socio-economic nature can be treated -

- one or more developing regions,
- the geography of an important West European country or area, with emphasis on the current problems,
- socio-geographic problems of the Netherlands in relation to the West European situation.

Examination of 'developing regions' can involve the relations of these areas to Europe (as) found in the C.E.V.N.O. project - "Europe and the Third World" (1974), while (in studying) the geography of an important West European country's current problems one will encounter ... unemployment ... which can only be solved in a European or global framework.

The upper section of MAVO-4 can study a socio-geographic subject that has not been (examined) in the previous years. In the second and third year of MAVO-3 the social geography of a country or area in Europe or ... outside Europe can be studied. In the second and third year of VWO/HAVO it is possible to draw a picture of the most important Dutch regions ... In Parts C-F of the VWO curriculum the teacher (is free to) emphasise the physical or social aspects (depending) on the interest of

the pupils and on the current or permanent meaning of the subjects. (Thus, there would be scope to consider) problems of West European agriculture and international co-operation, (for example). Finally, it is possible to (examine) problems that are important for the Netherlands as well as for Western Europe as a whole. ... the subject is particularly suited for the (examination) of European problems".(1)

In economics the aim is formulated as being "the education in economic and judicial (studies, in order to provide) understanding and insight into the interdependence of economic phenomena and legal regulation in society.

The VWO-4, 5 and 6 and H.A.V.O.-3, 4 and 5 curricula hardly touch upon European economic problems at all. The only reference reads 'international economic relations'. There is some opportunity to introduce Europe into the study of commodity markets, factors of production, economic order and economic problems".

The curriculum is surprisingly ambivalent, as, for example, concerning the question of 'international economic relations' where topics listed include "the relation between the balance of payments which appertains and the internal monetary situation, revaluation and devaluation of currency and the International Monetary Fund, the transfer of payments in Europe and the organisation of European economic co-operation".(2)

Oonk clearly regards this as the least helpful of the syllabuses, and recognises irony in the fact that many Europeans accuse the Community of being over preoccupied with Economic integration, and yet a serious academic syllabus for schools pays no attention to it. As regards civics,

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1. Henk Oonk, op.cit., pp.17-18, paragraphs 3.1.2.

2. Henk Oonk, op.cit., pp.18-19, paragraphs 3.1.3.

the stated aim is "to prepare pupils for participation in sociery, so that they will be able and prepared to choose consciously". No effort is made to vary the curriculum according to the kinds of school, and this subject is seen as an ... interdisciplinary one - helping to synthesise the work in geography, history, economics and biology. The teacher is left free to choose subject matter which will help invest his pupils with social concern and social skills, and he should avoid any conscious bias in his presentation of viewpoints. Although there is therefore no specific orientation towards Europe, the teacher is left free to interpret the subject in this way".(1)

De heer Pim van Elsdingen and de heer Cornelis v.d. Bergh of R.K.S.G., Durendael, the Brabant HAVO/MAVO school already referred to, are both very sympathetic to the European cause. Both have co-operated in the organisation of overseas student visits to serve the needs of pupils for a general broadening of cultural experience, as well as, more specifically, to meet the needs of their teaching subjects - English and geography respectively. These visits will be described in greater detail in Chapter 9, but suffice here to note that some one hundred students have been involved in visits to England, West Germany, France and Belgium, and that, in the absence of subsidy from central government for such visits, they have had to be funded entirely from school, parents and the efforts of the pupils themselves. De heer Cornelis v.d. Bergh is very keen on using the teaching of geography to promote European consciousness and international awareness generally.

In West Germany, the resolution of 8th June 1978 concerning the place which Europe should assume in the classroom, taken by the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the various Länder of the Federal Republic, began by reiterating the efforts of European organisations

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1. Henk Oonk, op.cit., p.19, paragraph 3.1.4.

since the war to promote European integration, and reminded readers that the preamble to the Basic Law - which established the constitution of the Federal Republic - called upon the German nation "to preserve its national and political unity and to serve the peace of the world as an equal partner in a united Europe".(1)

It then went on to affirm that "The mission of the school is to create an awareness that the nations and countries of Europe are drawing together and restructuring their relations within a number of different groupings. The school will thus play its part in instilling in the younger generation a sense of belonging to Europe and an understanding that in many areas of life decisions will now be taken not just on a national but also on a European level.

The school should communicate knowledge and ideas on;-

- the special character and the diversity of Europe,
- the principal historical forces at work in Europe,
- social and economic structures in Europe,
- the development of European legal and political thought and ideas of freedom,
- the efforts to organise and integrate Europe since 1945,
- the importance of joint action and supra-regional institutions to solve economic, social and political problems,
- the need to achieve a fair balance of interests in Europe,
- the importance of co-operation between the member states of the European Community and other countries in the world,
- the values and interests which govern decisions in Europe".(2)

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1. Resolution of the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Lander in the Federal Republic of Germany, Bonn, 8th June 1978. "Europe in the Classroom", p.9.

2. ibid., pp.9-10.

Perhaps most relevant to the question of how the conference considered European Studies should be undertaken was the final paragraph of the resolution which read:-

"In principle all classroom subjects can contribute to the achievement of the aims set out above. The way in which the European Dimension is introduced into lessons and the part it plays will vary from subject to subject. In community studies, history, geography, social studies and in languages European questions form part of the subject matter and closely relate to teaching aims. In other subjects too, it is possible to focus on important European aspects".(1)

In the words of Herr Jürgen Lechner, of Bayerischer Philogenverband, see also pp.252-3 above - speaking of the situation in the German Länder, "there is a great deal of literature concerning the European dimension in the secondary curriculum. In so far as these materials offer any specific programme - fulfilment of its objectives ultimately depends upon the good intentions of the teachers themselves. There is no official programme imposing European Studies on the teachers, but it is recommended that the European idea be presented in all the subjects which lend themselves to it. I consider the subject is better handled here than it is in France or England, but again it is far from satisfactory".

Professor L. Mattheiss, describing the teaching of the European dimension in the German Land of Baden-Wurttemberg, observed:-

"In the present primary school curriculum (6-10 years) the study of Europe should fit into the social studies area, where it can provide a range of examples and prove a sound medium for developing pupils' social and cultural awareness through topics such as the environment, homes and leisure.

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1. Resolution of the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany, Bonn, 8th June 1978. "Europe in the Classroom", pp.11-12.

In secondary modern (hauptschule) and grammar schools (gymnasia), from 10-16 years provision for teaching about Europe exists to some degree in the history, civics and foreign language syllabuses".(1)

According to Prof. Dr. Theo Balle, speaking on the same occasion,(2) "European topics are currently taught in the secondary schools of Baden-Wurttemberg. In the secondary modern schools the political geography of Europe is taught in the fifth and sixth grades, medieval European history in the seventh grade, aspects of the physical and economic geography and recent post-war history of Europe in the tenth grade. ... Language study is also important, (and the pupils learn) English Language studies and Anglo-Saxon background studies, with optional French and French background studies ...

Western Europe figures significantly in the world history syllabus of the grammar schools. Pupils are taught topics such as the foreign policy of the Federal Republic of Germany, and supranational institutions in social studies. The European dimension is strengthened for grammar school pupils who take English and French studies, classics, art and music".(3)

Returning to Mattheiss "...the curriculum committees are about to put greater emphasis upon Europe in the revised curricula, e.g. to include the theme of the movement towards European unification.

For the 16-19 group European political content is more prominent in the reformed curriculum for example, history includes a study of the idea

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1. Prof. Lothar Mattheiss, "Europe in the curriculum", talk in the plenary session of the first Council of Europe's Teachers' Seminar on 'Europe in the Secondary School Curriculum' Donaueschingen, 26-28th Sept. 1978, C.C.C. Strasbourg, p.5.

2. Prof. Dr. Theo Balle, "Europe in the Education Policy of Baden-Wurttemberg" ibid., p.4.

3. Prof. Dr. Theo Balle, "Europe in the Education Policy of Baden-Wurttemberg" ibid., p.4.

of Europe. In vocational schools the curriculum contains a limited European dimension. In agricultural schools, some European economic topics are prescribed such as E.E.C. policies and institutions, also some European content figures within civics. The curriculum of technical colleges touches on European supranational institutions; in the trade and domestic science schools, an element of European economic co-operation is taught in the second year and problems of European politics in the third year. Professional schools put more stress upon Europe than do schools providing general education".(1)

Finally, as regards the work being done to invest the school curriculum with a European dimension in French education, the Centre Regional de Documentation Pedagogique in Strasbourg, under its director, Raymond Hickel, has done much to this end. A 16 m.m. film, "L'Europe, c'est ton affaire" - (Europe - its your concern) has been developed by the centre to help arouse the interest of pupils.

Monsieur Hickel has explained the situation in French schools as follows:-

"There is a national curriculum for all pupils in the classes of the fourth and third, which extend from 13 to 15 years. It has been published under the title "European Institutions". To help teachers who are involved in implementing this programme the Centre has published a detailed bibliography".(2)

In this national curriculum the fourth class is given over to studying the geography of Europe and its historical evolution from the sixteenth to the end of the nineteenth century. The geography includes:-

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1. Prof. Lothar Mattheiss, "Europe in the Curriculum", talk in the plenary session of the first Council of Europe's Teachers' Seminar on 'Europe in the Secondary School Curriculum' Donaueschingen, 26-28th Sept. 1978, C.C.C. Strasbourg, p.5.

2. "Bibliographie Selective sur les Communautés Européennes et le Conseil de L'Europe", C.N.D.P., Strasbourg, June 1979.

1. The study of the natural environment - major structural components of Europe, and the maritime, continental and mediterranean regions from the point of view of relief, drainage, climate, soils and natural vegetation. Wherever possible, features are to be illustrated by means of practical work and by reference to French regional examples, to amplify concepts of general geography.
2. The study of the human geography - using physical, political and economic observations to help explain the population distribution.

History is concerned with studying the main characteristics of Western Civilisation from the sixteenth to the end of the nineteenth century, giving particular stress to A. The French Monarchy- (1) Life in the Countryside and towns during the entire period under review, (2) the Renaissance and Reformation, (3) Absolutism and its shortcomings, France in the reign of Louis XIV, Great Britain in the late seventeenth century, the crisis of the French Monarch in the eighteenth century, and the birth of the U.S.A.

B. The French Revolution.

C. The Nineteenth Century - (1) The birth and development of the modern economy, (2) Social changes, (3) Major trends, and the effects of nationalist and liberation movements in Europe up to the First World War.

Finally, there is a study of the affairs and problems of contemporary Europe - (1) The present state of Europe - the existence of two quite separate political, social and economic systems which will be studied in the Third Class.,(2) The origin and development of the E.E.C., (3) Four Studies of Major Regions, each illustrating a major problem, e.g. A large industrial zone developed on a communication axis - the Rhinelands, Maritime outlet of Western Europe,
Agricultural activity on a great plain - the Po Floodplain, The London

Basin, Tourism - a factor in the transformation of a region - The Alps, the Mediterranean Coast,

Problems associated with urbanisation - illustrated from a major agglomeration.

(4) Study of a French region - the local environment of the pupils, considering geographical, historical, political, economic, social and cultural aspects - and the problems existing in the region.

The third class is devoted to the study of the twentieth century. In the course of that study, which places a particular emphasis upon France, history, geography, economics and civics again play a major role.

The first part of the programme is concerned with analysis of the major evolutionary trends in the world between 1914 and our own day, while the second part focusses upon specific situations which have arisen from that evolution. The first part includes:-

(1) The world up to the eve of World War One,

(2) The First World War - origins, main events, settlement.

(3) The Interwar Period - Economic developments, The Democracies - France, Great Britain and the U.S.A., The Dictatorships - Italy and Germany, The U.S.S.R.,

(4) The Second World War - origins, main events, settlement.

(5) Changes in the world since 1945.

(6) Civilisation today - abandonment of traditional values and changing life-styles.

The second part of the programme is given over to the political, economic and social geography of a number of countries, but particularly France, to introduce pupils to civic and economic affairs:-

(1) France - institutions, demographic problems, economic structure, major sectors of activity, information media, society.

(2) The E.E.C. - studied from the world viewpoint, considering its establishment and development, the economic power of its members, and some of its problems - regarding energy, agriculture, mobility of goods, capital and labour, and regional politics.

(3) The U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. - spatial structure and population, institutions, economic and social organisation, economic and political strength.

(4) The Major International Organisations, particularly the United Nations Organisation.

Monsieur Hickel has explained that the Cycle d'Orientation, from 13-15 years, is considered to be the most appropriate stage at which all pupils in France should receive a thorough grounding in European Studies - before the differentiation in their education which occurs subsequently.

In conclusion, it remains to consider what might be undertaken in this field which is not already being done.

First, it would appear that, of all the countries of Europe, the U.K. has concentrated all its energies upon pressing for the inclusion of European Studies as a new subject in the curricula of secondary schools, whereas the other countries of Western Europe have advocated the development of a 'European Dimension' in the already established subjects of the school curriculum. Possibly in adopting this approach exclusively the U.K. has been misguided, since, to begin with, European Studies can never become an academic discipline in the sense that history, geography, economics or sociology are, because it is much more an interdisciplinary theme drawing its substance from other established subjects. This leaves it with a certain lack of cohesion in many syllabuses, and with an up-hill struggle for recognition in many schools.

This leads on to a second point, that its acceptance is currently confined to the secondary stage of education, and even then usually only for less-able language students who have reached "saturation point", academically weak pupils for whom it is used as a more stimulating alternative line of study, or sixth form students for whom it is offered to provide a cultural 'broadener', to help off-set narrow academic specialisation. Thus, in short, European Studies runs the risk of being treated as a low-priority fringe subject - crowded out of the main stream curriculum. The failure of European Studies to reach pupils in the primary school stage is yet another limitation upon its effectiveness. This situation, on the other hand, would be greatly improved if, in addition, a 'European Dimension' were to be included in the other school subjects.

As has already been elaborated on page 286 above, however, the strategy adopted by continental European countries including the Netherlands, West Germany and France, that of depending entirely on the development of a European dimension in the established school subjects in order to teach young people about Europe and European institutions, is certainly not without its short-comings either. Therefore, a combination of both approaches adopted not only in the U.K. but throughout Europe might help to ensure some systematic consideration of Europe to provide a synthesis for the valuable but isolated European elements thrown up by other subjects in the schools of mainland Europe, and also ensure that all British children, instead of a minority as at present, received tuition about Europe throughout their school career.

Secondly, the teachers' organisations concerned with the promotion of European consciousness are forever at risk for lack of adequate financial support. The recent collapse of the C.E.E. in Brussels

provides a case in point. It would seem reasonable to propose that, through the annual conference of the main teachers' unions in the various European countries, a proposal ought to be put forward that a fixed proportion of the annual subscription be devoted to the support of the organisations, on the grounds that we are all members of the European Community. Such a proposal is no more contentious than the existing political levy imposed upon British Trades Unionists whatever their political persuasion, and with much less justification. Arrangements could be included to permit conscientious objectors to opt out of the levy. Alternatively, or in addition, the European Cultural Foundation based in Amsterdam - see p.187 above - might be emulated in other parts of Europe. It is at least partly supported out of that universal human propensity to gamble for which resources are forever made available, regardless of prevailing economic conditions. It would be a far more worthy cause for the gambling public to support the integration of Europe, than to line the pockets of private promoters.

Finally, it is of paramount importance that Europe and the European institutions and the ideals they stand for should evoke the same loyalty in the minds of young Europeans as their national institutions once did in the minds of earlier generations. While Eurocentricity and European jingoism would be quite as undesirable as the old-time nationalism it would supplant, if Europeans are to acquire European consciousness, then European youth needs to identify with Europe in much the same way as American youth is able to do for its own vast continent.

In Chapter 9 consideration will be given to the value of study visits and exchanges, not only to serve the needs of language studies, but in order to hold up to the young people the greatest expressions of Europe's cultural heritage and the European institutions, to provide them with a tangible vision of Europe's underlying unity, and a rallying

point for their personal loyalties. In the same context, however, it would be so much more valuable for the rising generation in each country if it could become personally involved in the development of Europe. What is needed is an organisation intermediate in scope between Britain's Community Service Volunteers and Volutary Service Overseas, so that, between full-time education and employment, young people might enjoy the opportunity of engaging in some purposeful form of international service - in a deprived part of Europe or amongst some deprived sector of European society. Such a scheme would meet many of the cries for instilling a sense of purpose and self-discipline into Europe's young people, but it would also do a great deal to promote empathy and understanding between Europeans. It might also be profitably extended to sabbatical years for professional people in various walks of life, or to fit people, newly retired, all of whom might have a great deal to offer in terms of expertise, energy and time. The experiences of wartime camaraderie demonstrate that people come closest together through working in close collaboration in some challenging situation, and this is why such a scheme would serve a purpose which is not served by existing cultural and sport exchanges amongst Europeans - which cannot be expected to evoke the same intensity of feeling.

CHAPTER IX: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 3. STUDY VISITS AND EXCHANGES: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

First, it is important to define what is meant by "Visits and exchanges". Mrs. Mantzoulinou has explained what she means in the following terms:-

> "... a mutual exchange of schoolchildren on an individual basis, or an exchange of groups organised at various levels - class, school, town or region, etc; or simply visits for educational reasons may be meant. For my own part, I include all these categories in the term "exchange" in the broadest possible sense, so that all types of school trips may be covered by it".(1)

Several educational experts preparing an analytical working paper for the consideration by the delegates at the Venice Colloquium in 1977 undertook to define the forms which an exchange might take more closely, although they did not claim that their list was exhaustive. They identified individual exchanges, in term or holiday time; class exchanges, in term or holiday time, and including simultaneous as well as consecutive exchanges; group visits using residential centres - either because of the nature of the activity to be pursued, or because pupils are not amenable to family stay; language courses; multi-national conferences and groups engaged in outdoor educational and sporting activities.(2)

Many of the benefits of study visits and exchanges have been listed by the same group of experts referred to above, who classified them in terms of the objectives they met as follows:-

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1. Mrs. Mantzoulinou, Explanatory memorandum:1. Value of pupil exchanges, Part II of the Report on educational visits and pupil exchanges between European countries, Committee on Culture and Education to the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe. Doc.4541, Strasbourg, April 1981, p.2.

2. Mme Perrellon, Mr. Rinke and Mr. Carpenter, Exchanges and visits for pupils within the E.C., in Commission, Pupil Exchange in the European Community, Venice Colloquium, Educ. Series No.5, Brussels, May 1978, pp. 45-46.

Pedagogical objectives - "Linguistic advancement ... must be one of the main aims of exchanges". This has already formed the subject matter of Chapter 7 above. - "Polarising subjects ... such as history, geography, natural science and technology". This objective was also in the minds of the delegates to the conference organised by the C.C.C. on the theme of "Co-operation in Europe since 1945, as presented in resources for the teaching of history, geography and civics in secondary school" in the conclusion to the report when it observed that "Bringing pupils into direct contact with other nations is by far the most efficient method of work (in the teaching of history, geography and civics) and the participants regret that not all pupils have the opportunity to participate in school exchanges".(1)

-"... for education systems to introduce innovations, to open up to other education systems, to take inspiration from other methods, and to become more active and dynamic".

Cultural objectives - to provide pupils with the opportunity for:-

-"the most varied possible contacts with the civilisation of the host country",

staying

"with the families of their exchange partners and thus be faced with the customs, other forms of culture, another way of thinking than those to which they are used",

-"learning about the social, political, economic and cultural situation of a country".

Educational objectives - at individual level;

-"to develop the child's spirit of initiative, ability to adapt, sense of independence and responsibility in so far as he has to

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1. Conclusions and recommendations of the Conference on"Co-operation in Europe since 1945 as presented in resources for the teaching of history, geography and civics in secondary schools", Braunschweig, 3-7th December 1979, DECS/EGT (79) 74, p.7.

solve certain problems for himself in less sheltered conditions than within his own family", and, at a general level, i.e. in the group;

to create

-"very close ties of comradeship between children",

and to give rise to;

-"new centres of interest".

Human objectives -

-"to promote a greater knowledge and understanding of the pupil's opposite number which goes beyond mere friendly curiosity",

-"to eliminate ... prejudice",

to encourage pupils

-"to examine themselves, and in this way ... (to achieve) ... greater self-knowledge",

to help

-"make people more sociable and tolerant, not only towards foreigners, but ... towards their fellow human beings",

and to prevent people

-"from cutting themselves off from others, and concentrating on their own difficulties, which can only aggravate these difficulties".(1)

One major corollary of such "Human objectives" as these must surely be the nurture in pupils of a European consciousness and sense of identity, and a proper pride in the European culture and institutions, matters which have already come under scrutiny in Chapter 8 above. It must be recalled, however, that achievement of the same human objectives also helps to ensure that the European consciousness and pride never degenerate into exclusive Eurocentricity.

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1. Mme Perrellon, Mr. Rinke and Mr. Carpenter, "Exchanges and visits for pupils within the European Community", op.cit., pp.42-44.

The benefits of exchanges may be listed in a variety of ways, and even though the summaries quoted below place quite different emphasis upon those benefits, both are wholly compatible with one another:-

> "Through being given easier access to other countries, young people can acquire a practical knowledge of different languages, cultures and ways of life. Properly organised exchanges and educational visits develop the capacity of young Europeans for mutual understanding and their awareness of belonging to a single civilisation. The special circumstances of community life outside the accustomed circle creates bonds of friendship and respect that encourage tolerance and peace amongst nations. Misunderstandings are superceded by a sense of shared responsibility. School life cannot but be enriched by the personal relationships that are forged between young people from different countries. New incentive is created for learning modern languages, history and geography and, if they are to be profitable, exchange visits should be undertaken at the earliest possible opportunity when young people have the greatest capacity to assimilate the foreign languages which are the first stage in a beneficial exchange".(1)

> "In conclusion exchanges should make young people aware of the fact that they belong to much broader entities than national ones, of the interdependence of the various nations at all levels, economic, scientific, artistic, philosophical and moral, and consequently of the need for solidarity and mutual respect of differences which are, in themselves, a source of mutual enrichment".(2)

Having thus considered the nature and value of visits and exchanges, it is now appropriate to enquire what so far has been achieved towards their promotion through the work of such international organisations as the E.E.C., C.C.C., A.E.D.E. and other bodies, as well as what is being done in the colleges and schools of Europe themselves. At this point it is essential to distinguish between policies directed towards promoting visits and exchanges for educational administrators and teachers on the one hand, and for students and pupils on the other.

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1. Mrs. Mantzoulinou, "Explanatory memorandum:1. Value of pupil exchanges", op.cit., p.1.

2. Mme Perrellon, Mr. Rinke and Mr. Carpenter, "Exchanges and visits for pupils within the European Community", ibid. p.44.

As early as 1974 the Commission of the European Communities advocated an increase of opportunities for educational administrators at national, regional and local levels to make visits to other Community countries.(1)

Similarly, when the Council and Ministers of Education compiled their momentous "action programme in the field of education" of the 9th February 1976, the European Community committed itself to "closer relations between education systems in Europe .. (by organising) .., at Community level, regular meetings between the persons responsible for education policies, and by (encouraging) ... the member states ... (to organise) ... study visits to other member states for local, regional and national administrators of schools and institutions of higher education".(2)

In practice, according to the general report of the education committee on progress made in the implementation of the action programme of 1976 which was submitted to the Council in June 1980,(3) considerable progress has been made in the implementation of this policy. In addition to two meetings for senior administrators which actually took place in Cambridge and at Berchtesgaten prior to 1976, similar meetings for national level administrative staff have taken place regularly since. One in the Netherlands in May 1977 was to discuss the Dutch education system, another in France, May 1979, was concerned with the newly created Collège unique - or comprehensive school- there.

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1. Commission of the European Communities, "Education in the European Community", Bulletin Supplement published in Brussels, 11th March 1974, p.10, paragraph 37.

2. Resolution of the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, op.cit., pp.2-3, Point IV, para. 4.

3. General Report of the Education Committee to the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, 27th June 1980, op.cit., pp. 8-10, paragraph II, A1-5, B1-2.

Study visits have also been provided for local and regional administrators in secondary education since 1978-1979, enabling small groups to visit another member state for a week to ten days to study the structure of, or provisions for, general and technical education for the 11-19 age group. In the period since 1979 emphasis has been placed upon the 11-14 age group, and some 200 administrators a year have been benefiting under the scheme.

As regards the administrative staff in higher education, a Seminar on the training and development of higher education administrators in the Community was organised in Florence as early as October 1977. A scheme for the support of short study visits to other member states by teaching, research and administrative staff was launched in the same year to provide 4-6 week long visits to enable participants to study the organisation and administration of different higher education systems and institutions, and in particular their relationship with local, regional and national structures. In 1979-1980 special encouragement was given to applicants concerned with course guidance, career guidance, the planning of training schemes for higher education administrative staff as well as those involved in the work of student admissions and/or the assessment of academic qualifications. Up to that time 210 grants for these categories had been awarded.(1)

In November 1980 the Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education of the Commission of the European Communities published information on its grants for short study visits for local and regional administrators of educational establishments catering for the 11-19 age range, expressing the hope that "those who take part in the scheme will

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1. General Report of the Education Committee to the Council of 27th June 1980, op.cit., pp.17-18, paragraph IV, A1-4, B1-3.

act as 'multipliers' in their own national systems".(1) In the same year it was disclosed that 188 visits by administrators from Community countries were receiving grants under the scheme, of which some 44% were from the countries with which this study is primarily concerned - the U.K., the Netherlands, West Germany and France.(2)

In January 1980 the Directorate also published information on its grants in the field of higher education - distinguishing between grants for the "development of joint programmes of study" - under which 174 such schemes, involving 276 higher education establishments, had been or were being supported, and grants for the "support of short study visits" by individual teachers, researchers and administrators.(3) In 1980, 131 people engaged in higher education were in receipt of grants for these short study visits, and of these 74% were from the U.K., the Netherlands, West Germany and France.(4)

The teaching and research staff of universities and other higher education establishments throughout Europe have always been accustomed to enjoying a high degree of academic mobility ever since the Middle Ages, except in so far that the new higher education establishments set up since 1960 were often not accorded the privileges enjoyed by the older ones. Extension of the principle of academic mobility will form the subject matter of Chapter 13.

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1. Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education; "Grants for short study visits by local and regional administrators of educational establishments catering for the 11-19 age range", XII/1183/80-EN, Brussels, 1st November 1980.

2. Directorate-General, etc., title as above - Educational Grants, 1980-1981, List 4, Brussels, 1st August 1980.

3. Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education, "Community grants in the field of Higher Education, Academic Year 1981-2", 60/en XII/1070/80-EN, Brussels, 1st January 1981.

4. Directorate-General, etc., title as above - Educational Grants, 1980-1981, List 4, Brussels, 1st August 1980.

As for teachers in schools, the European Community Commission, as early as 1974, were advocating moves to encourage teachers to undergo initial or in-service training in countries other than their own within the Community, or else to visit them for short courses. Teachers of languages and European studies were singled out as benefiting most from such experience.

> "Opportunities for movement of teachers at the primary and secondary level ... to spend a period of professional service abroad on an individual basis, whether for a year, a term, or even shorter periods, appear to be very limited. ... Similarly, the opportunities for student teachers to spend periods abroad as part of their preparatory experience merits study and further development.
>
> The Commission regards it as important to stimulate an increase in the opportunities for teachers to obtain some first hand professional experience of the education system in other member states. ... Therefore, in the light of an examination of the extent and character of existing arrangements ... it proposes that funds be made available to support pilot schemes for in-service movement of this kind".(1)
>
> The Commission considers that its most useful function would be to collect ... data on language provision. ... This preparatory analysis would include, inter alia, information on schemes for the placement abroad of teachers in training as an integral part of their preparation. ...(2)
>
> ... the Commission proposes that there should be established ... a pool of fellowships to make possible one-year or shorter term attachments to educational institutions in another member state. These fellowships would be allocated to teachers in secondary and post-secondary education ... to support ... projects relevant to the study of Europe in the broad sense". ...(3)

The Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976 comprising an action programme in the field of education was more explicit:-

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1. Commission of the E.C., "Education in the European Community", Bulletin Supplement 3/74, Brussels, 1974, p.10, paragraphs 33-34.

2. Commission of the E.C., ibid., p.12, paragraph 47.

3. Commission of the E.C., ibid., p.14, paragraph 54.

> "In order to give a European dimension to the experience of teachers and pupils in primary and secondary schools in the Community, Member States will promote and organise ... short study visits and exchanges for teachers, with special emphasis on student language teachers"(1)

and -

> "... to enable the greatest possible number of students to learn the languages of the Community, the attainment of the following objectives shall be encouraged: ... that before qualifying as a foreign-language teacher a student should have spent a period in a country or region where the language he is to teach is spoken ... As initial measures, ... Member States will ... organise regular extended periods abroad for teachers and encourage the exchange system for foreign language assistants". ...(2)

Following the 1976 Resolution for an action programme in the field of education, in 1978 the Commission of the European Community put forward two communications to the Council embodying proposals for the implementation of the action programme. In the first, dated the eighth of June, 1978, and relating to the study of the European Community, it promised that "the Commission would undertake to design and support a scheme of short and medium term visits and exchanges for serving teachers who specialise in this field".(3)

With regard to the second, dated the fourteenth of June, and relating to the teaching of languages in the Community, it advocated that for the purpose of providing initial training of foreign language teachers, the existing scheme for the exchange of foreign language assistants should be extended in order to ensure that "all future language teachers should spend a period of study and preparation in the

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1. Resolution of the Council .. of 9th February 1976, op.cit., Part IV, p.3, paragraph 5.

2. Resolution of the Council .. of 9th February 1976, op.cit., Part IV, p.4. paragraphs 17 and 19.

3. Commission to the Council, "Education Activities with a European Content: The Study of the European Community in Schools", COM(78) 241 Final, Brussels, 8th June 1978, p.9, (c) Teacher training, paragraph 31.

country the language of which they intend to teach".(1) It further advocated that ...

> "All practising teachers of foreign languages should have the opportunity to spend officially recognised periods of refreshment and training in the country the language of which they are teaching.
>
> To complement and extend the various types of in-service training abroad for foreign language teachers, the following proposals are made for a Community contribution:
>
> ... the setting up of a Community scheme for the long-term interchange of language teachers, for periods of 3 to 5 years ...,
>
> ... medium term teacher visits and exchanges lasting for one term or one year.
>
> ... short term (one to three weeks) study visits to other Community countries ... The Community would contribute 50% of the subsistence and travel costs of the visits".(2)

As regards recommendations for initial training of language teachers, these have been implemented by extensions to the existing foreign language assistants' scheme which has been operated among a number of Western European countries for some years. As early as 1972-1973, 6,102 such assistants were being exchanged, including 3,541 being received by the U.K., 1,593 by France and 812 by West Germany. In 1977-1978 the overall number exchanged was slightly less - 5,673 - of which 2,125 were received in France, 896 in West Germany, but only 2,582 in the U.K., reflecting the severe educational cuts inflicted there in recent years. Plans implemented by the Commission in June 1978, to take effect from 1980 onwards, were to step up this number by 1,000 per annum over the period 1980-1983, and hopefully to reach an eventual target of 10,000 foreign language assistants exchanged each year.(3)

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1. Commission to the Council, "Education Action Programme at Community Level: The teaching of languages in the Community", COM(78) 222 final, Brussels, 14th June 1978, p.2, paragraph 2.

2. Commission to Council, op.cit., COM(78) 222 final, Brussels, 14th June 1978, p.3, paragraph 7 (a), (b) and (c).

3. Commission to the Council, op.cit., COM(78) 222 final, Brussels, 14th June 1978, Annex A, pp.1-6, paragraphs 2 and 16.

The schemes for this expansion of the foreign language assistants' provision, as well as for the exchanges and study visits of serving teachers, were to be the subject of awards from the Community budget during the period 1980-83.(1)

It has not only been the E.E.C., however, that has, in the ways outlined above, extended practical guidance and support in favour of teacher visits and exchanges - so, too, have the Council of Europe, and the European Association of Teachers.

The Council of Europe's contribution has been embodied in the provision of two schemes; the Teacher Bursaries Scheme for Member States of the C.C.C., and the European Teachers' Seminars held at Donaueschingen in-service Training Institute in West Germany.

The Teacher Bursaries Scheme for Mamber States was set up in 1969 "to encourage member states of the C.C.C. to admit educationalists from other states to their own further training courses".(2) These courses, which last from between three days and a week, provides 500 places per annum for teachers, education experts, teaching instructors, education inspectors, head teachers, etc., who wish to learn about school systems, educational methods and in-service training arrangements in the various host countries, and to make the acquaintance of teachers and further training organisers in other countries".(3) Expenses for the courses are usually paid by the host country, although some travel scholarships are awarded by the C.C.C. Since 1971 some 6,000 teachers have been able to attend the short training courses in other member states as a result of this scheme.

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1. Commission to Council, op.cit., COM(78) 222 final, Brussels, 14th June 1978, Annex D, pp.1-14.

2. Council of Europe, "Teacher Bursaries Scheme for Member States of the C.C.C.".

3. Council of Europe, op.cit.,

The Teacher Bursaries Scheme also makes it possible to reimburse travelling expenses of all the European teachers attending seminars held at the In-service Training Institute at Donaueschingen in the Black Forest region of West Germany, other than teachers from Baden-Wurttemberg. The Institute provides free board and lodging for all the participants at its seminars.

The aims of the scheme are:-

(1)"to associate teachers more closely with C.C.C's work on education,
(2) to obtain new ideas for the C.C.C's programme,
(3) to make the C.C.C's work better known in the teaching profession in Europe".(1)

The first ten seminars between 1978 and 1980 covered the following topics:-

"Europe in the secondary school curriculum", "The newly qualified teacher", "School and work: introduction to working life", "New trends in history teaching in upper secondary education", "The education of the children of migrant workers", "The teaching of modern languages", "Development Education in secondary schools", "Human Rights Education in secondary schools", "The training of migrant immigrant children" and "Social and family education in secondary schools".(2)

Another Council of Europe initiative which helps reduce travel costs for teachers in Europe, and is therefore relevant, is the Cultural Identity Card issued by the C.C.C. to educationalists, students and researchers in higher education, artists, authors, youth leaders, etc. This may entitle the holder to free admission to ancient monuments, museums, art galleries, libraries, cultural events, etc., abroad. By reducing the cost of cultural pilgrimages in this way, it is potentially

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1. Council of Europe, "The C.C.C's Teacher Bursaries Scheme; European Teachers' Seminars in Donaueschingen", DECS/EGT (80) Misc 8, Strasbourg, 14th March 1980, p.1.

2. Council of Europe, ibid., pp.2-3.

a valuable contribution towards European consciousness.

The European Association of Teachers (A.E.D.E.), of which the origins, aims and contribution have already been outlined above, enables its members in each of its national sections to attend conferences and seminars in other countries, in order to see one anothers' educational systems in operation and to visit the European institutions in Brussels, Luxembourg and Strasbourg, as well as to make personal contacts with their professional counterparts elsewhere in Europe.

The A.E.D.E. can also help teachers to make study visits to Europe through award of scholarships of the Alfred Biedermann Foundation.

> "At the 5th International Triennial Congress of the European Association of teachers held on April 16th 1971 in Paris, the delegates of the 13 national sections ... decided unanimously that a permanent memorial to Alfred Biedermann, who had been the General Secretary of the E.A.T. (Europe) for several years ... should be established"...(1)

Article Seven of the revised articles of 1978 lay down that

> "This scholarship will be awarded to a teacher ... or any other person, whose principal occupation is related to the problem of education ... the scholarship thus awarded should reward a work accomplished by the candidate ... whose principal objective is to diffuse information of a European and educational character, regardless of the sort of school in which the candidate is working" ...(2)

According to the Honorary Secretary of E.A.T. (U.K.):-

> "... if the work is partially done, the award may be made to enable the candidate to travel for the purpose of study to complete the work" ...(3)

a concession most certainly exercised on behalf of the award-winning candidate of 1981.

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1. A.E.D.E., Articles of incorporation of the A. Biedermann Foundation, Geneva, 1971, Preamble to the regulations.

2. A.E.D.E., Revised Articles governing the work of the Foundation, Geneva, 1978, Article 7.

3. Mary Duce, Hon.Sec., E.A.T.(U.K.), Biedermann Foundation, Newsletter No.36, London, June 1980, p.3.

It is now relevant to consider the contributions of the various international organisations towards the promotion of visits and exchanges amongst children and young people, beginning with the European Community's work.

There is comparatively little about pupils' visits and exchanges in the Commission's "Education in the European Community" published in March 1974. It was argued that the national provisions for student mobility were very unequal and that what was therefore needed was an examination and consideration of "scope for extension of the arrangements".(1) Subsequent observations, however, make it clear that it is academic mobility which the Commission had in mind, since mutual recognition of qualifications was cited as a major contribution towards solving the problem, and only scant reference was made to visits and exchanges for pupils at school.

However, in the Council's action programme in the field of education resolved on the 9th February 1976, in addition to expanding upon the theme of academic mobility, concern was also expressed about the need to promote pupil visits and exchanges:-

First,

> "In order to give a European Dimension to the experience of teachers and pupils in primary and secondary schools in the Community, Member States will promote and organise ... the development of national information and advisory services necessary to promote the mobility and inter-change of pupils and teachers within the Community".(2)

and secondly, in order to promote the:-

> "... teaching of foreign languages ... Member States will encourage exchanges of pupils or groups of pupils".(3)

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1. Commission of European Communities, "Education in the European Community", Bulletin 3/74, Brussels, 11th March 1974, p.9.

2. Resolution of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, op.cit., p.2, point IV, para: 5.

3. Resolution of the Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, op.cit., p.4, point IV, para: 19.

In compliance with these resolutions a Colloquium - "Pupil exchange in the European Community" was organised in Venice between 24th and 28th of October 1977. The conclusions arrived at by this colloquium may be paraphrased as follows:-

If it is agreed that visits and exchanges should form an integrated part of the school curriculum, then member states have a responsibility to remove obstacles, and help encourage schools to participate more fully in them. This can be achieved by removing administrative and legal barriers; helping to minimise difficulties confronting deprived pupils, or pupils from deprived regions, by provision of compensatory grants; helping teachers to organise visits and exchanges by providing for preliminary visits; making provisions in the school time-table and curriculum for the briefing and de-briefing of students; ensuring that there is adequate scope for a European Dimension in the curriculum; negotiating at the national level for travel concessions for pupils and teachers, and for legal and insurance protection to help teachers and others who assume responsibility for visits and exchanges. On its part the Community ought to persuade member states of the enduring educational value, in terms of political awareness and European consciousness, accruing from visits and exchanges undertaken at several stages of the child's school career. The European Commission should do all in its power to help and encourage the nation states in the achievements of these objectives. More specifically, the Commission should conduct a series of pilot projects to search out possible solutions to the problems involved, and sponsor research into the contents and presentation of European studies. The original recommendations are worthy of close examination as presented in the final report of the Colloquium.(1)

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1. Maire Ni Chionnaith, Compiler, Final Report of the Colloquium, included in 'Pupil exchange in the European Community', Report of the Venice Colloquium 24-28th Oct. 1977, Education Series No.5, Brussels, May 1978, pp.62-65.

In his foreword to the report, the European Commissioner Guido Brunner, in discharge of his particular brief for education, paid tribute to the value of the report in that "the conclusions of the Colloquium ... are essentially practical, (as) demonstrated by the major contribution (they) made to the formulation by the Commission of concrete proposals on this theme".(1) These proposals were subsequently embodied in the two communications from the Commission to the Council in June 1978 already referred to in the context of visits and exchanges for teachers in schools on pp.309-310. Since this time the Commission has also published a Community Handbook for Teachers and Organisers of Pupil visits and exchanges (1981) designed to provide a practical guidance to organisers and persuade those in authority of the value of such enterprises.

As for the initiatives of the Council of Europe, it first has to be observed that the Council, despite its early establishment of a Standing Committee, the C.C.C., devoted exclusively to educational and cultural affairs amongst the Council members, has, by its own admission "taken no direct action to promote school exchanges ... (although) it has ... on several occasions supported or sponsored activities in this field".(2) For example, the C.C.C. gave its support to A.E.D.E., the European Association of Teachers, when it organised an international symposium - "Education and School Exchanges" - which was conducted in Sevres, in France, on the 18-20th February, 1973. The recommendations of this symposium were subsequently published again amongst the appendices of the Council of Europe's Report on educational visits and pupil exchanges between European countries, already referred to above, as follows:-

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1. Guido Brunner, Forward, ibid., p.5.

2. Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, Report on educational visits and pupil exchanges between European countries, Doc: 4541, 28th April 1980, p.13.

First, educational exchanges, visits and periods of residence abroad are an integral part of the training of pupils in secondary education. As such, they should be included in the annual curricula. Secondly, the nature, form place and duration of such visits and periods of residence as regards each educational establishment, should be decided by the establishment's competent body, after consultation with all the parties concerned - pupils, teachers, parents and administrators. Thirdly, the political and administrative authorities of each country or regional area should encourage and facilitate such exchanges, visits and periods of residence in so far as their resources permit; for this, it should also be their concern to provide teachers with training in group methods. Finally, the Council of Europe should (a) set up an information centre and encourage the creation of national and regional exchange agencies, (b) publish a regular brochure reviewing the most recent opportunities for exchanges and providing information on results and experimental schemes, and (c) simplify travel arrangements for educational exchanges, visits and periods of residence by means of a special international convention.(1) The report concluded:-

> "A school exchange, as we envisage it, apart from the fact that it develops an attitude of tolerance which is necessary if we are to build Europe on a satisfactory basis, has an educative value which is extremely important, as teachers, pupils and parents, who, in this way, are brought into contact with educational problems are linked together to think out afresh new approaches and methods of teaching".(2)

The European Youth Foundation of the Council of Europe gave its support along with the European Youth Centre, to enable the European Federation for Inter-cultural Learning (E.F.I.L.) to organise a series of seminars on "Youth Mobility and Education" in Strasbourg and San Gimignano, Italy, and also helped E.F.I.L. with the publication of a

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1. Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, ibid., p.27,Appendix IV.

2. Commission of the E.C. "Pupil exchange in the European Community, Venice Colloquium, 24-28th Oct: 1977. Education Series No.5, May 1978, Chapter 2, p.11.

study of youth mobility which ensued.(1)

Since this time the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe has given its support to the initiative first proposed by the Greek Minister of Education, for his government to act as host to one thousand school children from all the other C.C.C. Member States. The Greek visit was very successful, and was subsequently emulated by the Italian government, while the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe has since expressed approval and hope "that other member states could follow this example".(2)

The Greek mass visit took place in the period between 15th July to 15th September 1978, and involved the hosting of 559 boys and 611 girls, or 1,170 children in all from fifteen countries including Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, West Germany, France, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Sweden, Malta, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, and Turkey. The visits these privileged young people undertook involved two weeks in Greece - including three or four days in Athens, stays in several other provincial towns from which they could make visits to archaeological sites, and opportunities both to relax and to become acquainted with Greek people.

The mass visit to Italy involving over a thousand children, which took place during the summer of 1980, involved groups visiting more than sixteen different regions of Italy.

Apart from the work of the A.E.D.E. (European Association of Teachers) with its teacher members, the organisation has done all in its power to promote visits and exchanges for pupils. The Sevres Symposium of 1973, already mentioned, was just one such A.E.D.E. initiative.

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1. Guido Garavoglia, "Youth mobility today in Western Europe; patterns and trends", published by E.F.I.L. under E.Y.F. of the Council of Europe.

2. Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, op.cit., Recommendation 897 (1980), Strasbourg, 3rd July 1980, p.2, para: 9.

For example, the numerically and financially weak United Kingdom Section founded in 1962, has nevertheless, throughout its period of existance, "researched into methods of pupil and teacher exchanges. It has organised national and international European activities at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education".(1) In addition, "It ... encourages exchanges and visits of students and teachers to European countries, and has organised programmes for teachers visiting Britain".(2)

As early as 1973 the E.A.T/U.K. organised a visit to Britain for thirty-six young people from all the nine Community countries for ten days. They stayed with families in England, Wales and Scotland. The visit had been funded by the British Government as part of the "Fanfare for Europe" celebrations, and so, unfortunately, the Section has never again been able to engage in a project on this scale. More commonly, the best that can be done is for the Section to help its individual members find contacts amongst the members in other national sections, able and willing to co-operate in arranging hospitality and visits at their end.

It is now relevant to consider the relative achievements of the four countries with which this study is concerned, in providing facilities at national, regional and local levels to help those who seek to organise pupil visits and exchanges. In general, as Bente Aarup has observed, the situation in Europe is that "... many imaginative and successful schemes exist, and there is an increasing tendency to look beyond the classroom and towards other countries in order to give one's pupils practical experience of life and language in other European situations, (but that) the pattern, even in the relatively homogeneous

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1. General Secretariat of the A.E.D.E., "European Association of Teachers (pamphlet), undated.

2. E.A.T./U.K., "European Teacher; Journal of the U.K. Section of the E.A.T., Vol 5, No.3, October 1978, p.36.

countries of Western Europe, is extremely patchy".(1)

He goes on to write that the level of implementation of visits and exchanges is variable, with such activities playing "an important role in educational development" in some countries, yet evoking "little or no interest" in others. Bente Aarup has identified three stages in the development of provisions for visits and exchanges in the national school systems of Europe(2) as follows:-

first, that in which voluntary commercial organisations provide facilities for visits and exchanges in response to the initiatives which derive from the schools. This is still the general state of affairs in the Netherlands. Secondly, that in which local and regional educational authorities make grants available to encourage an on-going process of development in the schools, which have come to regard visits and exchanges for the nurture of international experience as an essential part of the school curriculum. This was the stage reached in the U.K., West Germany and France during the 60s, and is, at best, the situation in the Netherlands today.

Thirdly, that in which Ministries of Education develop nationally-maintained schemes to provide visits and exchanges because they recognise the need to ensure effective and consistant provisions for international contact between young people as an essential government policy. According to Aarup, this stage has already emerged in the U.K., West Germany and France, but not, it appears, in the Netherlands. Possible explanations could include the relative ease with which Dutch children, living in a small centrally-situated country, can go abroad compared with their counterparts in large; or in the case of the U.K.,

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1. Bente Aarup, "Pupil visits and exchanges in the European Community: a descriptive account", Chapter 2 of 'Pupil Exchange in the European Community, report of the Venice Colloquium 24-28th October 1977, Education Series No.5, Brussels, May 1978, p.9.

2. Bente Aarup, op.cit., p.12.

geographically-isolated, countries, and the limited resources and dense population of the Netherlands, which impose stringent choices of priority upon those responsible for government educational expenditure there.

Thus, in the U.K. there are three national agencies engaged in the task of promoting visits and exchanges by providing information, help and advice to organisers - those being the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges (C.B.), the British Council and the Central office of Information. There are, in addition, several other organisations which offer help to those organising travel and exchanges, such as the Council for International Contact, C.I.C., and the Educational Interchange Council, or E.I.C.

Amongst these, however, by far the most important is the C.B., established by the then British Ministry of Education and the U.N.E.S.C.O. National Commission in 1948,

> "... with the primary task of enriching the British educational community with particular emphasis on the administration of inter-governmental schemes of exchange and interchange; advice to other agencies and countries; information, documentation and research; exchange development in special fields e.g. recreation and sport, the performing arts, the handicapped, non-student youth, adult education; the operation, often in co-operation with other agencies, of study visits, expeditions, study courses, international meetings and seminars, training courses for youth leaders and teachers; training placement programmes and exchanges; assistance with curriculum developments bearing on language, area and international studies; administrative and other services to related organisations; the development of in-service education and training abroad; and liaison with other British, foreign and international bodies working for the general development of international education, co-operation and exchange".(1)

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1. Hilary Sewell, Compiler, "School Travel and Exchange", Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, London, 1981. p.3.

The organisation is funded by the U.K. Education Departments - including the Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.) the Scottish Education Department (S.E.D.) and the Department of Education for Northern Ireland (D.E.N.I.).

The C.B. has established working links with more than one hundred countries - mainly in Europe, as is inevitable, but also including Canada, U.S.A., the U.S.S.R. and the Eastern Block countries, as well as the Peoples' Republic of China. It gives information and advice on travel and visits/exchanges for students, teachers and organisers in all branches of education - including primary, secondary, further and higher educational establishments, and not only serves the needs of out-going British parties, but incoming parties from other countries.

To encourage exchanges the C.B. has done all it can to promote and establish school and college links, after which the two or more establishments involved can organise their own exchanges. Usually the visits and exchanges are conducted in term-time and are for carefully defined educational objectives, in which case the L.E.A. concerned often makes some kind of grant towards the cost. More than 3,000 links of this kind have been established by the C.B., and in 1976 alone 293 links were set up between British and French schools and colleges, and 76 between British and West German schools and colleges, but only two with schools in the Netherlands. This reflects the strong linguistic motivation which lies at the back of so many of the links, rather than any cultural consideration. It is estimated that in the same year some 100,000 visits were organised in term-time to France, 40,000 to West Germany, 20,000 to Belgium and 10,000 to the Netherlands. Nearly a quarter of all these were home exchanges.

The British Council was founded in 1934, and is concerned with fostering cultural relations between Britain and other countries. In

performing this function it has developed active working links with other European countries. Its offices in Europe are able to provide information on the agencies which promote the mobility of pupils. The Council also operates a Secretariat for the Joint Twinning Committee, which can assist in the "twinning" of districts, towns, cities, regions or countries. There are about 500 town "twinning" schemes, and twinned local government authorities - such as County Councils in the U.K. matched with French Departements,and these often have incorporated educational links. Most of the twinned towns and authorities are in the U.K., France and West Germany. Government funds are available through the British Council's Exchange Department to support some exchanges of young people, although this is a scheme not primarily intended for school children or students.

Amongst the other organisations the Council for International Contact or C.I.C. was, like the C.B., also founded in 1948, under the name of Worldfriends International Service for Youth. Today the C.I.C. arranges holiday language courses of a fortnight's or month's duration, with family stay, in the U.K. for some 2,000 foreign students each year. In all it also organises some 80 courses overseas for British students - including a month-long course in France and a fortnight-long course in West Germany. The C.I.C. Courses are operated in conjunction with foreign agencies such as the R.Q. Foundation in the Netherlands, P.A.D. or the Kultus-Ministerien in West Germany and the Centre des Exchanges Internationaux in France, and others in Western Europe.

The Educational Interchange Council (E.I.C.) operates four alternative kinds of visit or exchange programme; - there is the scheme providing three months as a paying guest, attending school, for British pupils in France or West Germany, or for West German pupils in the U.K.; language courses during the Easter or Summer Vacations, for British

pupils in either West Germany or France; three week long non-simultaneous home-to-home vacation exchanges for British pupils in either West Germany or France; and finally, various study visits lasting for up to three weeks. For any of these, participants must pay the whole cost. The schemes are designed primarily to cater for individual pupils and not for classes, although class visits can be arranged.

As regards the provision and practice governing school visits and exchanges in the Netherlands, it has already been observed that support from national and regional education authorities is much less forthcoming there than it is in the U.K. It has therefore been necessary to supplement information available from the European Commission and the Council of Europe by reference to individual teachers to find out how they are able to cope. In point of fact, thanks to the centrality of the Netherlands to several other West European countries, and the fact that - mainly for commercial reasons - most Dutch people are very strongly motivated to learn the languages of countries neighbouring their own, there are more visits and exchanges than might otherwise have been expected. Whereas,

> "most (British) pupils at secondary level will have a chance of at least one visit abroad during their school years (and) in many cases ... be able to travel abroad ... literally every year, in some instances twice a year ... it is still uncommon to arrange study tours as part of the (Dutch) secondary education programme. Only 50% of Dutch secondary schools have regular arrangements involving pupil travel abroad. There are no official statistics available on educational visits and exchanges since this activity is arranged by the schools themselves and reports are not required by the Ministry of Education. ...
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> There are no funds available from the Ministry of Education for study visits abroad, local authorities may contribute to expenses, but the extent to which this happens is uncertain".(1)

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1. Bente Aarup, op.cit., pp.22-23, 26.

The main agency for school journeys in the Netherlands is the R.Q. Foundation - Netherlands Foundation for Educational Visits, Correspondence and Exchanges - which is a non-profit making organisation established in 1968. The R.Q. Foundation gives practical help to the teacher organising a study trip abroad, and nearly all such visits are of one week's duration, held in term time, and paid for by the Pupils, using a saving scheme operated in conjunction with a local bank. The R.Q. Foundation pays a part of its profits to subsidise pupils who otherwise would not be able to participate in the study trips. It estimates that, of all the school trips it arranges, 35% are to the U.K., 24% to France, and 10% to West Germany - while the remaining 31% includes visits to Belgium, Switzerland, Austria and Scandinavia.

With bursaries from the E.E.C., N.A.T.O., U.N.E.S.C.O., O.E.C.D., and the European Parliament, the R.Q. Foundation also organises visits to the European Institutions for fifty Dutch school-children about six to eight times per annum. Each school is called upon to nominate just one or two pupils to join a particular party.

In addition to R.Q. provisions, Dutch schools are free to develop study visits and exchanges, and there are several commercial travel agencies which specialise in serving their needs. There may also be exchanges undertaken within the framework of town-twinning schemes.

R.Q. also arranges study visits to the Netherlands for about 15,000 pupils from other countries each year, mainly from the same partner countries referred to above - the U.K., West Germany, France, and Belgium. Since about 1968 there have been, in addition, special reciprocal exchange arrangements between Holland and West Germany designed to serve the needs of youth (12-30 years) by bringing them into closer relationships - either by programmes of study, or through engaging in joint activities such as sports. Seventy-five to one

hundred percent of the costs of such programmes are met jointly by the two governments. Similar schemes between the Netherlands and the U.K. or France were much slower to develop, owing to a lack of government funding, but since 1974 there have been regular exchanges between the Netherlands and France and several between the Netherlands and the U.K.

Some insight into the efforts of individual Dutch schools to invest their curricula with an international element is provided by reference to the work of de Heer Wim van Elsdingen and de Heer Cornelis van de Bergh, teachers of English and Geography respectively at R.K.S.G., Durendael, a Catholic H.A.V.O./M.A.V.O. school in South Brabant. During a joint interview they explained the situation in their school as follows:-

> "This year (1981) for the first time our school has begun to develop school visits and exchanges for the pupils. It is hoped this will develop into an annual institution. At present these visits are intended to serve two main purposes - the improvement of linguistic skills and the acquisition of a wider cultural perspective by the pupils. Visits conducted in 1981 included the following, all of five day's duration - about fifty pupils visited London, and were accommodated for the duration of their stay in private homes, another eighteen pupils, approximately, visited West Germany and stayed in Berlin hotels, and yet another party of eighteen pupils visited France and stayed in Paris hotels. Finally, eight pupils were able to undertake a cycling tour in Belgium.
>
> In all, therefore, nearly one hundred pupils were enabled, in one way or another, to enjoy the benefits of first-hand experience of travel in another European country - all of which had to be achieved without help from central or regional government.
>
> There are organisations such as R.Q., a non-profit making organisation, which exist to help the teacher, but in the case of the visits organised by us this year, we were indebted to Teener-Twen Tours (T.T.T.) a commercial enterprise which was never-the-less to prove extremely helpful. The money to finance these, and any visits we make in future, has to be raised by the school, the parents or the pupils themselves.
>
> In our school, however, the teachers have themselves banded together to set up an organisation - the Buiten Les Activitieten Kommissie - Committee for the Organisation of Extra-mural Activities - the name of which is B.L.A.K., derived from its Dutch initials. This organisation raises money to subsidise all worthy school activities - sport, travel, drama, etc. It is hoped that in future the scope of visits abroad will be widened to embrace the needs of geographical fieldwork".

In West Germany, because of the federal structure and the semi-autonomous nature of the eleven länder, it was felt necessary to establish an agency to co-ordinate and administer the exchange of teachers, foreign language assistants and pupils with other countries. Accordingly, the eleven Ministers of Education founded Padagogischer Austauschdienst or P.A.D. in 1952, as a department of the secretariat of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education in Bonn. The overall policy of P.A.D. is to help in "establishing closer contact and promoting better understanding through the learning of foreign languages and through exchange programmes which give teachers, foreign language assistants and pupils the opportunity to live in another country and, by means of family contact, to obtain practical language training and a deeper understanding of different ways of life".(1) In the achievement of this policy P.A.D. works in close collaboration with the various Ministries of Education and with the West German Foreign Office-which subsidises students from other countries working in Germany.

Within the Kultus-Ministerien, or Ministries of Education, of each of the Länder there is a particular department, or else the Länder has established a special agency to handle visits and exchanges. If these are in term time, and fulfil some specific educational purpose, grants may be available from the land concerned.

The most usual scheme is a bi-lateral exchange of school classes within the framework of a school-linking scheme. The students are accommodated in families for at least a two-week visit and the reciprocal visit is arranged in the same term if possible. The exchange is run in term time to ensure educational co-operation, and ministry bursaries are available for an approved scheme. Some multi-lateral exchanges, involving three or four countries at the same time have been

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1. Bente Aarup, op.cit., p.15.

arranged, but the organisational difficulties that can arise make these less popular. Exchanges between Germany and France may receive subsidies from the Office Franco-Allemand. There are many such exchanges with France, but also the U.K.

P.A.D. also helps organise educational visits - as, for example, the popular ten day visit to London, which incorporates a one day visit to a school in Greater London. This is arranged in collaboration with the C.B. In addition P.A.D. organises language courses in the U.K. for German secondary school pupils through C.I.C., described on p. 323 above. These are usually for a group of pupils escorted by their teacher, although individual pupils may also apply the courses may be of three week's duration during the Easter vacation, or four weeks during the summer period, and, in 1973 alone, 652 German pupils were involved in the twenty-two courses so arranged.

Apart from these services to German students, P.A.D. also extends its services to foreign students wishing to visit Germany, particularly for language studies. All the programmes include elements of language tuition and family stay, and last for three or four weeks. The language work includes daily conversation lessons and project work, plus several excursions. The aim is to accommodate the students in families which include children of the same age. Somewhere between 2,250 and 2,500 students a year are provided for by these courses, in batches of about 25 students each. The Federal Government subsidises the courses by up to 30% of the cost for students from the U.K., although, the greatest number of students attending the courses are from France.

P.A.D. also arranges language courses which are provided as part of the Ministry of Foreign Affair's "Pramien Programme" - scholarships awarded by the Federal Republic of Germany to foreign pupils deemed

particularly proficient in the German language. In 1974 one thousand foreign students benefited, and some seven hundred and fifty German students benefited too, from the reciprocal invitations which followed.

During the period 1973-1978, P.A.D. provided courses - not counting those which developed out of school links - for some 29,000 students from 55 countries all over the world, including 25,563 students from 21 European countries. These included 5,973 from the Netherlands, 5,656 from France and 847 from the U.K., or nearly half the total number of European students catered for.

Jürgen Lechner of Bayerischer Philogenverband in Munich, already quoted on pp. 252-3 and 292 above, suggests that amongst the 18,000 members of the Bavarian teachers' association he represents, most student visits that are organised are for language purposes, with the bulk of these being to France, England and the U.S.A., and a minority to Spain and Italy.

The teacher of English and German at an Ottobrunn Gymnasium, Herr Bulow, is able to confirm this general pattern, since most visits made by students in his school are to Austria, France and England, those to France and England being for linguistic purposes. He confirms that grants for such visits are readily available, although he also observes that his school prefers to organise its visits during the summer holidays. Herr Bulow has not provided any up-to-date statistics.

Finally, as regards the situation in France, the most usual types of visit or exchange favoured before 1964 were short study visits and exchanges of only two or three weeks duration. Now, however, under the school linking scheme organised by the Ministry of Education, some 15,000 pupils a year are able to visit another country. The official agency concerned with organising pupil and teacher exchange programmes is the Bureau des Affairs scolaires du Service des Affairs Internationales du Ministere de l'Education. During the period 1976-1977 the total number

of school links established with other Community countries increased by some 38%, and predominantly with U.K. and West Germany. The number of such links established with the U.K. alone rose from 830 to 1,151, and it is estimated that 340 exchanges were effected as a consequence between the U.K. and France. In the same period the number of links with West Germany rose from 903 to 1,239 and the number of exchanges achieved as a result was probably in the region of 450. As for the Netherlands, the number of links between her and France were doubled - from two to four - but only two exchanges were known to have been effected.

Exchanges have also been achieved with the East European countries, Switzerland, Austria, U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.

The Circulaire sur les appariements dated 19th October 1976 was designed to encourage schools to organise term-time visits for entire classes, for which, provided the organiser submitted a well-defined educational programme, the State would contribute twenty two percent of total expenses - the balance to be met by parents, or in the case of less well-off children, by municipal funds or from benevolent association grants. However, the conditions which were laid down for such a subsidy - that the proposed visit must be for a minimum of two weeks, that the programme must include intensive language study and contact through school or leisure activities, plus study of the country concerned, and must be most stringently prepared in order to be eligible - appears to have militated against the scheme's popularity, a conclusion borne out by an interview with a French schoolmaster subsequently.

Instead, most common are the study visits organised during the school holidays with general and cultural, as well as linguistic, objectives in mind, which are not subsidised by central government, and so are free of strict control and conditions.

The Office France-Allemand pour la Jeunesse (O.F.A.J.) provides grants to support Franco-German exchanges which probably accounts for their being the most numerous. At the time exchanges with the U.K. are also very popular. Exchanges with Italy and the other Community countries are less common.

Outside the Official visit and exchange schemes which operate with in the school linking system, there are also a large number of school travel agencies - some non-profit making, some commercial, which offer schemes for educational programmes to serve the needs of individual pupils or whole classes. Some offer opportunities for pupil exchanges, e.g. the 'Comité d'Accueil des èleves des écoles publiques', which is recognised by the Ministry of Education, and which aims to provide school visits with an educational and cultural content, organises exchanges for individuals or groups of pupils by "pairing off" children with similar family backgrounds within the catchments of two schools, the families being expected to offer reciprocal hospitality to one anothers' children. Under this scheme a group of children from a French school is met by a representative of Comité d'Accueil at London Airport in the Spring Holiday, whose job is to see that they are met and received into the homes of their English hosts for a visit of some two week's duration. Then during the Summer holidays a comparable group of English pupils are met at Paris Airport, and go to enjoy a comparable holiday as guests of their French family partners. By employing consecutive visits, both children have the benefit of one anothers' company during their sojourn abroad, and both families correspond throughout several preceeding months, so that hopefully an even more permanent relationship is established. This scheme has been in operation between the Radcliffe Comprehensive School in Wolverton, Milton Keynes, and the College d'enseignement Secondaire in Beauvais, Near Paris, over a period of many years.

Amongst the purely private schemes is Sejours internationaux linguistiques et culturels (S.I.I.C.) an organisation recognised by the Ministry of Youth and Sport, which offers short language courses with family stay, or as au pairs. Thus in 1975 S.I.I.C. sent 2,798 French young people to the U.K., 288 to West Germany, 46 to Ireland, and 25 to Italy, while, in the same year 79 English, 18 West German and 12 Dutch young people were able to visit France on S.I.I.C. programmes.

Another private scheme is that of Les Villages Europe, operated by a non-profit making organisation seeking to provide camp centres and villages where young European boys and girls in early adolescence can spend three weeks together engaging in cultural and sporting activities and linguistic training. In 1971, when Les Villages Europe was first established, 166 English, French and German children availed themselves of its facilities, while during 1973 - 340 children attended the villages.

When questioned about his experience of school visits and exchanges as a teacher, and the situation with respect to visits and exchanges in his part of France, Raymond Hickel, Director of the Centre Régional de Documentation Pédagogique in Strasbourg, expressed the following opinions:-

"When I was a teacher, I was in charge of a regular exchange between Epinal and Loughborough. I consider that it was a great help in breaking pupils away from harmful stereotypes, but progress in language studies was not always so successful. From my observations of schools in my area it seems that two week exchanges and visits appear to be most popular. However, in my view they are either too short or too long. For such visits, under certain conditions, local grants may be available to help pupils. The Office France-Allemand pour la Jeunesse helps, and so, too the British Council and the French Government. Here in Alsace

most children can most easily visit West Germany and Switzerland, but a good number of secondary schools in this area also have exchange schemes with the U.K. as well".

Monsieur L. Blech, the English master of the College Jules Verne, a College d'enseignement Secondaire in Illzach, Near Mulhouse in Alsace, when asked about the opportunities for exchanges and visits for pupils from his school replied - "Such opportunities are rarely taken. They would have far greater appeal and value if they were easier to organise". In this he was criticising the stringent conditions which must be met by an organiser if a school visit or exchange is to be eligible for a Ministry of Education grant. According to Monsieur Blech, some seventeen students from the Jules Verne College visited West Germany on a language course in 1981, and there were no plans to extend provisions for such courses in future years at that time.

In conclusion, it is necessary to pose the question - what possible future measures are necessary if we are to extend the benefits of personal contact and travel in other parts of Europe to all Europeans? The following may be put forward as possible ideas.

In one of its most recent recommendations on the subject of visits and exchanges the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe advocated that the governments of member states ought to;-

> "... foster educational visits and school exchanges through support measures, especially financial, and to increase their range in order to include states whose languages are not widespread or not generally taught in schools beyond the national frontiers, encourage the inclusion of such visits and exchanges in school curricula ... improve the content and availability of information, so as to make it accessible to those interested",

and that the Council for Cultural Co-operation ought to;-

> "... help circulate information about the various categories of exchanges at the European level ... deal with the problem of school exchanges as a whole, in order to propose solutions on a European level, ... (and) encourage the

signatory states to the European Cultural Convention to follow the example set by the Greek and Italian governments by taking turns on a regular basis to host visiting groups of European school children".(1)

There is some evidence that national governments have been taking steps to implement such proposals, although the present economic climate is likely to impose severe restraints upon extended visits or exchanges, whether they are to be paid for by national governments or local authorities beset by economic stringencies, or by the parents of participating children coping with inflationary costs of living, or worse still, with unemployment.

However, such circumstances may delay progress, it is imperative that, when economic conditions permit, measures should be taken in all member countries to ensure that -

- curricula and examinations at all levels of the education system should be required to take cognisance of the principle that visits and exchanges are an integral and necessary part of educational experience, and should be made available to all those undergoing education,
- this extension of visits and exchanges should not stop at providing opportunities for visits and exchanges for those involved in formal education, but reach out to all social, professional and cultural sectors of society through such media as trades unions, professional associations, womens' institutes, youth organisations, senior citizens' groups - so that visits and exchanges can be developed and make available to suit all interest and age groups in European society.

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1. Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, "Recommendations 897 (1980) on educational visits and pupil exchanges between European countries, as adopted .. on behalf of the Assembly, 3rd July 1980, p.2, paragraph 12A, and p.3, paragraph 12B.

- the Council of Europe's viewpoint should prevail in seeking to extend these provisions to European countries out of, as well as in, the European Economic Community, so as to promote the hoped-for extension of the processes of economic and political integration beyond the narrow confines of the existing Community, by nurturing European consciousness,
- everything possible is done, at European and national levels to make travel more easy, and thereby encourage fuller use of facilities for visits and exchanges. One rather prominent example of an obstacle, which threatens the growth of European consciousness amongst the citizens of the U.K., is the English Channel, crossing of which will involve a costly sea or air journey unless procrastination ends on the future of the Channel Tunnel project.

Present thinking favours a rail link only, yet only a road link would permit cheap, spontaneous and flexible travel by car or bus. Thus the true participation of ordinary, less affluent, British people in European affairs in future hangs in the balance, and only if the right decision is taken will they be able to travel on the mainland of Europe as easily and cheaply as their mainland counterparts can do. Similar, though perhaps, less conspicuous barriers to European contact abound, and can, even in these days, delay the breaking down of national prejudices as in the past they led to the perpetuation of regional and parochial prejudices.

CHAPTER X: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 4. THE RE-WRITING OF SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

Throughout history the survival of human communities has often been achieved by inculcating loyalty for that community in its members. Unfortunately, leaders of such communities have frequently sought to reinforce the loyalties of their followers to their communities by nurturing hatred and prejudice towards the members of other communities which appear to threaten them. This has achieved the objective of reinforcing the sense of solidarity required, but only at the cost of distancing such communities from the others. Such negative aspects of parochialism and nationalism can never really have been in the best interests of humanity as a whole, even though they once had a survival value; now, however, changing world conditions are removing any survival value they ever had.

For instance, the rapid improvements in the technology of transport in the past half century have made world travel relatively easy, and had the effect of throwing people together in an apparently shrinking world. To survive they have to learn to live together amicably, and even this will not alone suffice to preserve them. Our survival is hazarded by such global threats as over-population, hunger, pollution, and nuclear war - which can only be averted by much more than amicability or tolerance towards one another, that is to say, by genuine co-operation between all peoples. Far from having survival value, the transmission of hatred and distrust to the rising generation can only culminate in the destruction of human civilisation. Already two world wars have ravaged humanity in the span of a single human lifetime, yet the unthinking mass of humanity is as yet only vaguely aware of the danger it is in, and still, as in earlier generations, only a few far-seeing

individuals are advocating internationalism as the only hope for redemption of mankind. Despite this general lack of human response to its plight, a minority movement for internationalism has come to fruition in the twentieth century, and a first fruit of this movement has been a growing effort to promote textbook revision as a means of eradicating hatred and prejudice from the minds of the rising generation.

Indeed, it was after the First World War that, as already described in Chapter 5 above, the French Schoolmaster Georges Lapierre and his German counterpart Georg Eckert began, independently of one another, to work towards the creation of a new generation of textbooks freed of prejudice and unjust stereotype. In this early period their efforts were largely doomed to failure, but following the Second World War their ideas struck a more receptive chord in the minds of a war-weary generation which had come to recognise the fact that Fascist brutality had been the direct consequence of exclusive nationalism fed upon a diet of race hatred and prejudice.

Thus it was that the dying Lapierre's message to his post-war colleagues was to lead directly to collaboration between French and German historians in rewriting the record of relations between their two countries, in an effort to ensure that a century of emnity between them need not be prolonged still further. Georg Eckert, on the other hand, survived himself to resume in 1949 the publication of his international textbook review, which had been suspended throughout the Nazi era. This led on to his setting up the Institute for International Textbook Revision in a teachers' training college in Braunschweig, West Germany, in 1951. In 1953 the Ministry of Culture for Lower Saxony assumed responsibility for the Institute, and Georg Eckert was established as its first director. In subsequent years the institute has come to be involved in close collaboration, not only with various

other German Länder but also further afield with the E.E.C., the Council of Europe and U.N.E.S.C.O. It has acquired such a reputation in the field of textbook revision that, in 1965, when the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe adopted a resolution calling for the creation in all countries of national information and documentation centres for the improvement of history and geography textbooks, it also expressed the view that such centres needs must be co-ordinated, and "that the Braunschweig institute, which has had long experience and is unanimously appreciated, is particularly well placed to act as a co-ordinating body".(1)

In June 1975 the International Textbook Institute was reconstituted as the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, and the new institute has since enjoyed the broader-based sponsorship of Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg and Hesse, North Rhine Westphalia and the Rhineland Palatinate as well as Lower Saxony. Under its mandate, the Georg Eckert Institute is required to:-

> " - compare, through international textbook research, the presentation of historical, political and geographical material in the textbooks of the Federal Republic of Germany with that of other countries, and to submit recommendations for making it more objective,
> - organise meetings of experts from home and abroad for the purpose of examining and revision of textbooks,
> - to provide advice to textbook authors, editors and publishers,
> - to prepare expert commentaries and critiques, and to support research,
> - to share the results of its scholarly research and practical experience with the public through publication and public lectures".(2)

The geography, history and civics textbooks, or teachers' reference books for teachers of these subjects, either published by the Council of Europe, or commissioned and recommended by them have been discussed earlier. In this most important work, which has involved the C.C.C. in

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1. C.C.C. Resolution calling for the setting up of National Information - Documentation Centres in 1965, and quoted in Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., Chapter 10, p.365.

2. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, Braunschweig, 1980, p.3.

about a dozen conferences, the Council of Europe has worked in very close collaboration with the Georg Eckert Institute.

Between 1961 and 1964 the C.C.C. convened four conferences "on geography teaching and the revision of geography textbooks and atlases. ... These were held at Goslar in West Germany; Tenerife, Spain, Bray, Ireland and Reykjavik, Iceland and dealt respectively with the geography of Central Europe, Southern Europe, Western Europe and Northern Europe".(1)

According to the Information and Documentation Centre for the Geography of the Netherlands (I.D.G.) it was at the third conference held in Bray, Ireland, that a suggestion was put forward which was to culminate in two resolutions of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe already referred to above, that national information and documentation centres should be established, and that the Braunschweig Institute should serve as their co-ordinating body.

The 1979 conference, "Co-operation in Europe since 1945 as presented in resources for the teaching of history, geography, civics, in secondary schools", was organised by the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe:-

> "... in co-operation with the Commission of the European Community and the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research (to) examine a problem revealed by the C.C.C's earlier work on the teaching of history and civics in secondary schools. An analysis of history textbooks carried out by the Council of Europe showed that 'the most conspicuous hiatus in our treatment of the history of peace is our failure to give particulars of the various efforts ... made ... to provide a ... basis for an international community, ... a community of Europe! Furthermore a survey on civic education revealed that ... European co-operation is presented in an uninteresting way. ... limited to a purely static description of the European institutions ... which pupils find boring.

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1. Information and Documentation Centre for the Geography of the Netherlands, "anglo-dutch conference on the revision of geography textbooks - final report", Utrecht, Netherlands, 25-19 August 1975, p.1.

> The aim of the Braunschweig Conference is to make proposals to textbook authors, producers of teaching resources and teachers on how to present the topic 'Co-operation in Europe since 1945' in a lively and interesting way(1) as recommended in Resolution (64) 11 of the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers".(2)

The subsequent "Conclusions and Recommendations" of this conference, which were published on the 10th December 1979, indicated that the international delegates to this conference - from nineteen of the C.C.C's member states, the Commission of the European Community, members of the Georg Eckert Institute, etc., all of whom were convened under the chairmanship of Professor K.E. Jeismann, Director of the Georg Eckert Institute(3) were particularly concerned that:-

> "... partly because of the age of the pupils under discussion, (13-16) the traditional material sent out by the international organisations is far too abstract, far too static and far too prone to describe the legal details and the formal framework of the organisations and their work, instead of giving the pupils an opportunity to see what this work can mean to their every-day life. Teachers, too, tend to reject this kind of material ... It must be realised that teachers ... are the ones to decide whether a given resource should be used. Consequently, every effort should be made ... to offer them material which is interesting, concrete and readily usable".(4)

It was generally agreed that European co-operation could be presented through:-

> "History, geography, civics, ecology, artistic activities and ... modern language ... (but that) the subject matter could also be treated in an interdisciplinary way ...".(5)

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1. C.C.C. Conference on "Co-operation in Europe since 1945, op.cit., pp.5 and 6.
2. C.C.C. Conference on "Co-operation in Europe since 1945, op.cit., appendix I. pp.7 and 8.
3. C.C.C. Conference on "Co-operation in Europe since 1945, as presented in resources for the teaching of history, geography and civics in secondary schools; conclusions and recommendations", DECS/EGT (79) Strasbourg, 10th December 1979, p.1.
4. C.C.C. Conference, ibid., p.4, paragraphs 3:1,3:3.
5. C.C.C. Conference, ibid., p.4, paragraphs 4:2,4:3.

This, however, not only required more preparation on the part of teachers, but also placed an onus upon those concerned with the preparation of teaching resources to produce more interesting, informative, accurate and well-presented material.

> "This calls for a tripartite co-operation among teachers as authors and users (with pilot runs of material in school); international organisations to bring people together and commission work; publishers to market the final product".(1)

In short, the teachers must be trained and equipped for presenting European co-operation, and the material they teach must be relevant to the pupils' own surroundings, experience, problems and concerns. This is why teacher-authors who are in direct contact with their pupils are to be preferred to authors who have no such experience of teaching children, and so no means of testing out the efficacy of the material they are offering or the mode of presentation they advocate. Effective teaching, in this context, seeks to encourage a life-long concern in young people with the future development of Europe.

The capacity of the Georg Eckert Institute to co-ordinate the efforts of educationalists and of other international bodies has not been solely confined to collaboration with the Council of Europe or the Commission of the European Community.

The Institute has brought together "researcher and teachers of history and ... geography from different countries for a professional exchange of ideas on an individual basis, and for formal conferences".(2) It has initiated consultations between historians and educationalists to encourage a re-writing of the historical records of relations between countries where these were particularly prone to prejudices, misconceptions, misinterpretations and other things

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1. C.C.C. Conference, ibid., pp.7-8, paragraph 9:1.

2. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute, op.cit., p.3.

predisposing the perpetuation of hatred and mistrust, and a new generation of new textbooks dealing with historical "German-French, German-British, German-American and German-Polish"(1) relations has come into being, freed from such injurious trammels which can only serve to encourage the nurture of half-remembered grudges from the past.

In addition to such instances of bi-lateral textbook revision, U.N.E.S.C.O., in which Georg Eckert was, himself, President of the German Commission,(2) has sponsored the Institute's "worldwide multi-lateral text-book analyses".(3) Examples have included the efforts to re-write, fairly and objectively, the history of relations between Catholic and Protestant, Christian and Moslem, as these have affected the history of Western Europe; and the pilot project on the revision of history, geography and social studies textbooks in which France, India, Japan, Kenya, the U.K., Venezuela and West Germany have participated.(4)

It will also be recalled that there is at least one other international body, in another part of Europe, engaged in very similar work to that of the Georg Eckert Institute(p. 118 of Chapter 5 above). Forening Norden, as already recounted, monitors the work of textbook authors in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden to help eradicate errors and prejudice from it.

The I.D.G., already mentioned on p.339 above, as having been one of the national information and documentation centres to grow up since 1964 as a result of C.C.C. initiative, was so impressed by the achievements of the German-Dutch conference called by the Braunschweig Institute in 1973, that it has since set about planning a similar

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1. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute, op.cit., p.3.
2. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute, op.cit., p.3.
3. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute, op.cit., p.4.
4. I.D.G., op.cit., p.1.

series of bi-lateral national conferences on its own initiative.(1) In this it has followed a pattern of procedure recommended by Dr. Otto-Ernst Schuddekopf - first, initiation of the bi-lateral contact; secondly, exchange and mutual inspection of a selection of textbooks; thirdly, meetings to discuss the results of these inspections; fourthly, activities in both countries to disseminate the findings of the conference amongst authors, publishers and teachers; and finally, regular follow-up meetings to evaluate the effects of former meetings, and review new publications, etc.(2)

The first of this series of conferences was the Anglo-Dutch conference on the revision of geography textbooks called between August 25th-29th 1975 at Utrecht, at which the I.D.G. conferred with the British Geographical Association in mutual criticism of one anothers' textbooks. Some of the most popularly used textbooks from both countries were selected for analysis. In addition to the criticisms levelled, the answers to those criticisms by delegates in the other national group, were all reported in the final report, giving rise to as objective an assessment as possible.(3)

Other national information and documentation centres, such as the Centre Régionale Documentation Pédagogique in France, S.E.R.C. in the U.K. and C.E.V.N.O. in the Netherlands have not undertaken such rigorous programmes of textbook revision as I.D.G., although they do from time to time undertake analysis and criticisms of school textbooks, which may in time help to bring about improvements in subsequent books or new editions of existing books, and all undertake to provide accurate

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1. I.D.G., op.cit., p.2.
2. Dr. Otto-Ernst Schuddekopf, "20 Jahre Schulbuch Revision in West-Europa, in the International Textbook Institute Series, Vol XII, Braunschweig, 1966.
3. I.D.G., op.cit., pp.7-43.

and up-to-date information to textbook authors, teachers and general enquirers at home or abroad, and produce their own teaching material available to teachers on request.

However, there appear to be certain weaknesses in the whole existing practice of textbook revision. Not least, this is because the relations between panels of textbook revisionists and would-be authors and publishers appear to assume the same pattern as those traditionally between writiers and literary critics - where even the soundest of opinions on the critic's part may be resented, and advice disregarded, because of democratic traditions of academic freedom and free speach. In other words, the agents of textbook revision do not enjoy any kind of standing with authors in general, even though their efforts for the good of a large section of mankind make them worthy of greater moral authority than individual critics could ever warrant. Furthermore, the European political institutions are themselves too weak and ineffectual to give them any kind of support. So it is that at present weak, inaccurate or outmoded textbooks can reach the catalogues, and nationalistic sentiments can be defended by the principles of academic and democratic freedom, even when they are against the best interests of young people to absorb. An accusation which can be freely levelled against protagonists of Europe by anti-federalists and the defenders of nationalism is, of course, that any attempt to put forward a European idea in textbooks is not true education, but smacks of indoctrination. On the other hand, the European movement can surely claim, like Christianity and democracy, that it is a strand of European tradition with a long history and a social value, which makes it worthy of transmission to the younger generation.

Similarly, the E.E.C. and the Council of Europe exist as international political, economic and cultural institutions, and as such

they have the same kind of right to be heard on the international stage as national political institutions claim for themselves, indeed a greater right, since their supranational sanctions were conferred upon them by the democratic decisions of Europeans, whereas national voices are only heard by the mutual agreement of their compatriots. In short, if a body of European thought exists within Europe, it has a right to make itself heard through politics and to transmit itself through education.

How, then, can the international movement for textbook revision be given a voice to render it effective in a Europe where the forces of reaction are free to suppress internationalist aspirations, simply by perpetuating nationalist and sectarian sentiments which can only lead to division, distrust and ultimately, through hatred, to the destruction of European civilisation and the European people?

First, it is probably true that there is a need for international organisations like the Council of Europe to sponsor books for specialised readerships - books which have only a limited commercial potential but which are likely to exercise an influence upon European thought out of proportion with their level of sales. This however, can only be justified where, on the basis of careful research, it is clear that the book will meet some need which cannot be satisfied it it fails to be published in the normal way. In general, however, the supply of college and school textbooks must depend upon the commercial publishers, who alone have the required expertise to gauge the market with the sensitive motivation which comes of risking their capital, and the vast capital resources needed for the production of books on the scale required. Any move in this direction inevitably runs the risk of encouraging the publication of doctrinaire books for which there is an insufficient demand - because schools are not ready for, or in sympathy with, the ideas expressed in them.

Therefore, if it is not desirable that publishing of textbooks should be subsidised, then any strategy for the production of European-motivated textbooks needs to be based upon policies designed to stimulate the demand for them. This can only be achieved by seeking to educate publishers, education authorities at national and regional level, authors and teachers, themselves, to believe in Europe, and the practising teachers to use the books. The policy to motivate and educate teachers through international conferences and seminars, as well as through elements within initial and in-service training provisions, needs to be stepped up and extended to reach a greater proportion of teachers at all levels.

Secondly, having stimulated the market, textbook authors - preferably teacher-authors who are themselves part of the market they are writing for, and so have the expertise to write technically-sound and educationally-effective books, must be given practical help and guidance by the international organisations - who have essential information and documentation about Europe; by the publishers - who have an overall view of the market no author can hope to have; and by the teachers - who alone know the kind of books they can use and are prepared to buy. To provide the authors with such help and guidance, continuous liaison is needed between the various parties concerned, and here the various Information and Documentation Agencies seem to be capable of meeting the need most effectively, simply by developing routine procedures for liaison between publishers, international organisations, teachers and authors, and expanding their operations to cope with demands upon their existing services which would inevitably proliferate as a result.

Thirdly, if it is accepted that the commercial market should be stimulated rather than that international organisations should intervene in the business of publishing textbooks, then this is best achieved by conferring some kind of European "Seal of Approval" upon what are deemed

the most desirable books - in terms of accuracy, up-dated-ness and freedom from prejudice of their material, and the practicality and educational soundness of their method and arrangement. Such a European "Seal of Approval" could easily become the dominant criterion of textbook selection for the well-informed teacher, and the textbook authors would then be encouraged to aspire to this accolade, and the publishers would also come to see it as something which could ensure a book title an acceptable share of the textbook market.

It remains to consider how such a seal of approval could be made sufficiently effective and prestigious to ensure that authors and publishers took it into serious account, because they saw it operating to their advantage.

One way might be by requiring, within the standard publishers' contract, that authors should be willing to submit the manuscript for scrutiny and possibly for recommended amendment to approved authorities such as the Braunschweig Institute, in order to earn the coveted seal of approval, before their book was accepted for publication. The co-operation of publishers would almost certainly be ensured if the seal of approval was seen as synonomous with the book enjoying an assured share of a large and critical European sales market, and benefiting from enhanced publicity throughout the European sphere of influence. This approach would work effectively if it was in the best interests of publishers and authors to win the approval and support of the international organisations - and this would require that the international organisations should strive to create a market for what they regard as the right kind of book, a market too large and too remunerative for the publishers and authors to disregard. The acceptance of guidance and oversight on the part of publishers and authors must, however, be entirely voluntary - they must remain free to go ahead and publish without a seal of approval - since otherwise such a

scheme could become a form of censorship. The parallel might be cited of the way in which profit incentives have induced the majority of Danish farmers to become members of agricultural co-operatives, while a minority have been free to operate on the open market.

Finally, one of the most powerful disincentives to publishing textbooks for the European, as opposed to one national market, has been, up until the present time, the additional costs involved. For example, the production of the same book in each of the principal European languages entails not simply translation, but the setting up, printing and distribution costs of each separate language edition - expenses which, unless the book has most unusual universality of appeal, deter the publisher. A cheaper expedient adopted by a number of international organisations has been to publish a work in parallel columns, or in successive language sections, but this is really only practical for a relatively short work. The final book may be several times longer and more bulky than a single language edition, costs of production and marketing are accordingly higher, but still some economies have been achieved. A solution which might deserve serious consideration might be to overprint each page of a single edition in several languages - but using inks only rendered visible to the reader wearing a filter lens appropriate to a particular language. In this way one volume could be read by readers in any one of several languages, requiring such readers to possess appropriate spectacles. The additional cost to the publishers of such a book would be confined to the overprinting. Since similar principles are already employed in photography, additional costs of such a process would probably be minimal, and would surely be readily off-set by rendering the finished book suitable to a many-times larger European market. Writing for such a market would be an enriching and mind-broadening experience for the present generation of authors,

since they would have to study its needs and tastes far more fully. Yet it would be an exercise calculated to increase the European consciousness of both author and reader of such books. It would also seem that the production of "European books" ought to be an objective complementary to that of textbook revision, and one which, in the long run, might go a long way to making textbook revision superfluous.

A compulsive logic inevitably leads the textbook revision movement to go beyond its original purpose of eliminating bias and error from textbooks, and this has already been demonstrated in the development of this chapter.

It is clearly more effective, instead of merely apprehending error, inaccuracy or stereotype where it exists in a text book, to anticipate where it is likely to occur by providing "advice to textbook authors and publishers".(1) From there it is only a simply extension of the same principle to publish textbooks - to "share the results of ... scholarly research and practical experience with the public through publication".(2)

However, in doing this the movement, embracing not only the Georg Eckert Institute but its active collaboration in the European Economic Community, the Council of Europe, the United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation and the various National Information and Documentation Centres which have grown up, has become a vehicle for the propagation of the ideal of European unity. So long as the movement was content to confine its attention to apprehending errors, or anticipating where they might occur, its work was uncontroversial. Once engaged in publication however, it has become open to the accusation of engaging in indoctrination, rather than education. In face of such an

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1. Prospectus: Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, Braunschweig, 1980, p.3.

2. idem.,

accusation, the movement cannot afford to concede, since to do this would be to forego the right to go forward in the potentially most effective way. For this reason alone the accusation needs to be answered here.

Education, to be worthy of the name, must be more than the mere imparting of facts. It must include the transmission of valuable and essential skills applicable to learning, vocation and personal living; equipping the student to think objectively and logically; and making possible the acquisition of up-to-date, relevant, and socially-acceptable standards and beliefs which will enable the student to prosper in, and make a contribution to, the society into which he or she is born. There can be no room for neutral or ambivalent conditioning - a person without fixed references or beliefs is not, as is sometimes supposed - free to think or choose his course of action, but is incapable of choice or decisive action, and susceptible to every suggestion that comes his way.

The subjects, into which, for academic convenience, educational curricula are divided, fall into various arbitrary groupings. But even the practical subjects, which are made up with a large proportion of factual information and useful skills, are based upon underlying assumptions and involve the acceptance of definite value judgements and beliefs.

In contrast the subjects sometimes called "Arts" and "Social Sciences" are more subjective. Unless they are taught in conjunction with skills and techniques, presented with integral relevant, up-to-date and socially acceptable value judgements, and viewed from an acceptable ethical standpoint, they are reduced to mere catalogues of facts, and as such are scarcely worthy of study. Even then they are based upon underlying assumptions. It is true that the worst aspects of

subjectivity can be mitigated by offering the students constructs involving various alternative judgements and standpoints, and guidance in the making of qualified choices based upon the recognition that every choice has its implications. The student is then hopefully equipped to make a qualified judgement. Study of the case for European integration, whether it be through European studies, or as a dimension of an established academic subject, may be looked upon as coming within this category of social science. This kind of study must, by definition, be included in any curriculum worthy of being regarded as providing a balanced education.

So far it has been argued that European studies, in common with other social sciences, have a place in any worthwhile curriculum, and need not fear rejection on the grounds that they involve indoctrination, any more than any other branch of social science. There are several other reasons why the presentation of such ideologically-oriented studies can be justified.

First, the European movement has an ideological basis with roots as old as, or older than, those of democracy and Christianity in our own philosophical tradition. If these two values are regarded as acceptable for transmission to young Europeans as part of their education, then for this reason alone, the European ideal is worthy of a similar acceptance.

Secondly, the European movement already exists. It is a reality, and has already made a substantial contribution to the life of Europeans. Since it is therefore relevant to the life of European people in the late twentieth century, it needs to be learned about, and has a right to be judged on its own merits in accordance with the value judgements which the young have already acquired in the course of their education. The citizens of Europe ought to have the right to participate

in decision-making for the future development of Europe, but there is no sense in trying to ignore the fact that they are already a part of the continent.

Thirdly, before being moved to resist the introduction of textbooks with a strong ideological content on the grounds that they threaten the young with indoctrination, it is well to recognise that this word is too emotive and subjective to apply to the European Movement. So often in our times we have seen the patriot or freedom-fighter, however heroic, accused of terrorism by his oppressors. Whereas tenacity of purpose amongst our enemies is dismissed as fanaticism, the cunning and treachery of our own leaders can be made into virtues - skillful diplomacy and cool pragmatism being seen as necessary qualities in them. In the same way, if we have the courage of our own convictions, knowing that teaching the young about Europe is necessary and relevant, then we will not fear the hysterical cries of the nationalist. The jingoism of the nationalist must also be exposed for what it is. Far too often, young people are encouraged to confound nationalism, which is defence of a political and economic regime, for patriotism - which is love felt for the country and culture into which one has been born. This if anything, is the most serious of deceptions, since very few nation states can any longer provide political and economic security, and need to be absorbed into larger international federations for the sake of the people who look to them for sustenance and well-being.

Any attempt to recommend Europe to young people which does not attempt to demonstrate its value and relevance in a critical fashion, is as guilty of indoctrination as so many nationalists are. On the other hand, any author or teacher who makes the case for Europe, rationally and honestly, which shows its importance, both to the individual and to European society as a whole, in offering a more secure future for us,

and the preservation of our most cherished values - Christianity, democracy, peace, social justice and equality, will surely be acting in the best traditions of Western Education.

CHAPTER XI: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 5. THE DISSEMINATION OF EDUCATIONAL MATERIAL: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

This is a field of activity in which there is an enormous range of contributors since, in the sense that every European organisation at the international, national or regional level is, by definition, ideologically motivated towards European integration, it must also be concerned with disseminating information suitable for teachers to pass on to their pupils, or with answering enquiries by researchers or interested members of the general public. At first sight this would seem to imply a great deal of wasteful duplication, but it is hard to see how any attempt to centralise or co-ordinate such activities would not, in practice, lead to far greater waste. Furthermore, each organisation disseminates its own distinctive material, and many of them seek to cater for particular kinds of clientele amongst the different levels of teacher, researcher or enquirer.

Amongst the disseminators one must include, first of all, the major international organisations themselves - each of which operates its own information and documentation centre to provide for the transmission of information to one another, to politicians and administrators primarily, but also to meet the needs of teachers, researchers and members of the general public, because they see this as an essential public relations exercise - an essential part of their policy programme directed towards the nurture of European consciousness.

As was noted in the previous chapter, it was one such international organisation - the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe - which, as early as 1965, recommended that national centres for the dissemination of educational information and documentation should also be set up. Such centres now exist in most of the countries of Western Europe, and

details of some of these centres, as well as details of some centres at regional and local level in the U.K., will form a major part of this chapter. Many centres combine the information and documentation function with other related functions such as textbook revision, curricular and examination development, the production of audio-visual aids, and the planning of research and educational projects. Their work involves efforts being made to promote the development of a European dimension, or the introduction of European Studies in the school curriculum. All these activities are, however, only complementary to the essential function - that of supplying information to teachers at all levels of education, politicians, planners and administrators in all kinds of agencies, and researchers and general enquirers. In so far as many such centres have already been considered in the context of the promotion of European Studies or the European dimension in schools, there will inevitably be reference to previous sections, and the present chapter will seek in this way to avoid duplication, and demonstrate the rich profusion of centres no less effectively.

First, however, it is necessary to remind ourselves of the information and documentation services of the major international organisations. The origins and development of the European Economic Community have already been recounted in Chapter 2 above. As early as 1971 the Council of Ministers of the E.E.C. passed a resolution calling for the creation of an information and documentation service between the member states.(1)

In the Communication to the Council from the Commission dated 11th March the Commission stated that "Policy making within the Community in the educational field (will) increasingly profit from a systematic

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1. Résolution du Conseil, et des representants des États membres, réunis su sein du Conseil, tendant à coordonner l'action des États membres, en matière d'information et de scientifiques et techniques (IDST) adoptée lors de la 157 session du Conseil, tenue le 24 Juin 1971, OJ C122, 10-12-1971.

interchange of information about developments in the Member States. A survey will therefore be conducted of the sources of information and documentation already available, and of the extent of further needs. On the basis of this survey, consideration could be given to the creation of a network, which would fit into the general information and documentation network that was the centrepiece of a resolution adopted by the Council on 24th June 1971.(1)

This led to a draft resolution of the Council for co-operation in the field of education which took "note of the Commission's intention to survey the existing sources of documentation and statistical material on educational developments in the Community with a view to strengthening the interchange of such information at the Community level in the future".(2)

In turn this issued in the momentous "Action programme in the field of education"dated the 9th February 1972 in which Point IV, paragraphs 8-12, dealt with the resolution undertaking the "compilation of the up-to-date documentation and statistics on education" - and declaring that:-

- it is necessary to increase and improve the circulation of information between those responsible for education and those receiving it at all levels.
- To this end, an information network will be set up by appointing in each member state a national information service on education in the Community. The organisation of work at Community level will be studied once the appropriate national measures have been taken.
- In collecting information, member states will apply experimentally the norms agreed in the framework of EUDISED.(3)

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1. Communication from Commission to the Council, op.cit., 3/74, p7. paragraph 19.

2. Draft Resolution of the Council of the European Communities and of the Conference of Ministers of Education meeting within the Council for co-operation in the field of education OJC58 of 18-5-1974, as quoted in the Bulletin of the European Community's Supplement 3/74, op.cit., p.20.

3. The European Documentation and Information System for Education, of the Council of Europe.

- In order to enable the Community to make its specific contribution towards promoting better mutual understanding of educational systems, a study will be made at Community level of the best way of bringing existing information to the attention of the citizens of the Community. Information handbooks for pupils and students will be drawn up,
- The Council and the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council express their will to support the efforts undertaken by the Statistical Office of the European Communities to expand, as part of a continuing programme, data concerning co-operation in the field of education".(1)

Subsequently, in accordance with the action programme of 1976, paragraph 9, in January 1978 the Education Committee agreed to establish an education information network in the European Community. This involved the setting up of one or two national units in each member state to participate in the network, and the Commission was responsible for the setting up of a central co-ordinating unit in Brussels. This network, called EURYDICE, became operational in September 1980.

There are also national information units - one serving the U.K. at Slough in Berkshire, another serving the Netherlands at 's Gravenhage, and two each in Bonn, West Germany and Paris, France. In addition there are two national information centres in Brussels, Belgium, and one each in Denmark, Eire, Italy and Luxembourg(2). During its development phase, access to EURYDICE has been restricted mainly to policy-makers at Community and national levels. However, it is envisaged that teachers and researchers will be granted access to its facilities under certain circumstances. Again, for the duration of its development phase, four main policy themes are being regarded as the priority themes for the EURYDICE network.

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1. Resolution of the Council and of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, comprising an "Action programme in the field of education" of 9th February 1976, No. C 38/1, Point IV, p.3, paragraphs 8-12.

2. Eurydice Information Pamphlet, "Eurydice, the Education Information Network in the European Community", pp. 9-11.

These are -

1. The transition from school to working life.
2. The teaching and learning of foreign languages.
3. The education of migrants and their families.
4. The policies and conditions of admission governing student entry to Higher Education.(1)

During 1980 close co-operation was developed between EURYDICE and EUDISED so as to make use of the EUDISED Multilingual thesaurus which includes Dutch, English, French and German versions, as well as Spanish, Greek, Italian, Danish, Finnish and even Brazilian ones. By using the thesaurus the "Exchange of educational data" through EURYDICE has been greatly facilitated.(2) Plans for up-dating and storing the thesaurus on the Commission's computer system, and the joint management and financing of the thesaurus by the Commission and the Council of Europe, were completed in 1981.

The Resolution of the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising "an action programme in the field of education", in paragraph 12, called upon the Statistical Office of the European Community (EUROSTAT) to continue efforts to expand the statistical data available. Such data on "Education and Training" has indeed been collected annually since 1973, and falls into two main categories - firstly, that relating to the number of pupils and students at school and in university broken down by age, sex, level of education, region, and the number of teachers in the schools; and secondly, government expenditure on the school and university systems.

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1. Eurydice Information Pamphlet, ibid., pp.4-5

2. Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., pp.48,66.

In 1977 a single working party on education and training statistics was set up, comprising experts from the national statistical offices and from ministries of education and labour or social affairs, or in some cases specialist agencies responsible.(1) This working group meets twice a year, and a single member from each national delegation is responsible to ensure that the relevant statistics from his respective country are submitted on time.

It is not easy to ensure strictly comparable data between the various countries because of differences in their educational structures, but in this work the Statistical Office of the European Community is assisted by the "Working group of Education and Training Statistics", and by the Commission Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education, and the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs. In addition a liaison is maintained with U.N.E.S.C.O., the O.E.C.D., and with CEDEFOP, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, to ensure some standardisation of statistical concepts and a minimum of duplication.(2)

Efforts are also being made to enlarge the scope of the educational statistics which are collected by EUROSTAT, so as to include modes of training outside the secondary and tertiary levels, and to cover the transition between education and training on the one hand and working life on the other.(3)

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, Brussels, 27th June 1980, p.16.

2. Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.66.

3. Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.67.

Enough has also been noted to indicate how, in this as in other fields, the international organisations have increased their level of collaboration with one another. This theme will be pursued subsequently in reference to the Council of Europe and the other international bodies.

Apart, however, from making information available to educational planners and researchers, the E.E.C. has also sought for a number of years to make information and documentation available to teachers and general enquirers. Thus in addition to its Central Information Offices in Brussels, the E.E.C. also maintains Regional Information Centres in London, Cardiff, Edinburgh and Belfast for the U.K., in Bonn for West Germany and Paris for France, as well as in other Community countries such as Rome, Denmark, and Greece, and Turkey and U.S.A besides. In each such country, the centres publish an associated edition of the European Economic Community's Magazine, "EUROPE 84", angled towards the local interests. In addition a large selection of reports and memoranda on a wide range of subjects is available in several of Europe's official languages on request.

The origins and development of the Council of Europe, and more directly relevant here, of the School Education Division of the Council for Cultural Co-operation (C.C.C.) have already been outlined on pp.158-73. The C.C.C. has developed its own media for the collection of outward transmission of information and documentation relevant to education. EUDISED, the European Documentation and Information System for Education, was first established solely for the purpose of facilitating exchange of educational information and research in Europe. It has since, however, devoted some of its energies to related projects. Amongst these, for example, the EUDISED multilingual thesaurus has already been referred to.

Widespread adoption of the thesaurus has greatly facilitated the computerised processing and exchange of international educational information. Another EUDISED scheme is EUDISED AV, which led to the publication of a Directory of Audio-visual Information Agencies in 1980.

In 1973 the National Foundation for Educational Research, at Slough, Berks. in the U.K., first published a U.K. Register of Educational Research. In 1975 the EUDISED R. & D. Bulletin was first published as an experimental issue to describe research and developments in European Education. In 1979 the bulletin was first published commercially, as a joint venture between the N.F.E.R. and Nelson's the British Educational publishers. The bulletin is published every three months in English, French and German, and during 1981 the bulletin contained contributions from fifteen member states of the C.C.C., and its readership took in some thirty countries all over the world.(1)

In 1973 the Council of Europe's Documentation Centre for Education in Europe published its first "Survey of education research policies in European countries", which was subsequently up-dated in 1979. The centre has also been publishing a newsletter - "Faits Nouveaux" - since 1969, which lists major developments in education in the member states.(2)

The National Foundation for Educational Research (N.F.E.R.) which has already been referred to as the U.K. Centre for EURYDICE, also houses the Education Policy Information Centre (EPIC) which was established on a five-year experimental basis in 1978 to investigate how the policy-makers of the U.K. could learn to use, or contribute to, national and international information exchange services.(3)

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1. The Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.47
2. The Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.48.
3. D.E.S., European Education Co-operation and the U.K. (Oct.1979) p.14, VII g : Education Information, paragraph 46, E.E.C.

Like the E.E.C., in addition to making information on educational matters available to politicians, planners and researchers, the Council of Europe does all it can to cater for the needs of teachers and interested enquirers amongst the general public. Its imposing range of textbooks, books on educational methods, its conferences and seminars and the subsequent reports that enjoy a wide readership, the resolutions of its Assembly, all are available on request to the Head of the Directorate of Education of the Council of Europe in Strasbourg. Furthermore, although in the main the Council aims to reach the children and young people of Europe through their teachers, it has also organised the European School Day Competition since the Centre for European Education in Brussels was closed down in 1980.

The Organisation for Economic co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.), of which the early development has already been considered in Chapter 5, is also indirectly involved in the collection and disemination of educational information and research through O.E.C.D. - C.E.R.I., its Centre for Educational Research and Information.

As the O.E.C.D. has itself explained:-

> Educational R & D and information are not handled within the O.E.C.D. as activities per se, they do, however, constitute an essential component of all the substantive areas of work within the O.E.C.D. programmes, and they are, of course, inherent in the mandate of C.E.R.I. itself.(1)

For example, the Educational Statistics Yearbook which first came out about a decade ago(2) is being published in a revised and computerised version(3) and, in addition, a book has already been published providing comparable statistics for the O.E.C.D. countries.(4)

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1. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.33.
2. O.E.C.D., Educational Statistics Yearbook, Vol I, International Tables (1974) Vol II, Country Tables, (1975).
3. D.E.S., op.cit., p.14, VII g, Education Information para 48, O.E.C.D.
4. Educational Statistics in O.E.C.D. Countries/Statistiques de l'enseignement dans les pays de L'O.C.D.E., February 1981.

There are also Educational Innovation Exchange Activities which form an integral part of the C.E.R.I. programme, and are designed to provide a structure within which member countries can cooperate bilaterally or in groups to seek solutions to their common educational problems. These have included research into the relations which obtain between higher education institutions and the Community - based upon a survey of a hundred such institutions in twenty-two countries. A conference to discuss the resultant report was held in Japan during January 1981.(1)

A previous programme was concerned with the in-service training of teachers (I.N.S.E.T.), and in particular with research into adult learning theory, school-based learning, the cost of training teacher-training staff, and new teaching materials. An international conference held in 1980 brought this particular programme to its conclusion, and the final report was published in 1981.(2)

Although U.N.E.S.C.O. is primarily a world-oriented rather than a European organisation, it has amongst its worldwide membership nearly all the European States, some thirty four in all - including some from the Eastern as well as from the Western bloc.

> "... U.N.E.S.C.O's main task since its creation, in Europe as in all other regions of the world, has been to promote exchanges and mutual understanding ... U.N.E.S.C.O. has thus provided for many years an arena for fruitful regional and sub-regional co-operation.
>
> In the promotion of such regional co-operation, ... U.N.E.S.C.O. is offering the multidisciplinary experience acquired in the development of international co-operation in general and in the European area in particular, as well as the assistance of its various services to Member States of the Europe region and the signatories of the Helsinki Final Act, to help them strengthen and extend regional co-operation".(3)

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1. D.E.S. op.cit., p.10,IV, Higher Education, para 21, Innovations in Higher Education.
2. D.E.S. op.cit., p.12,VIIb, Teacher Training, para 38, Continuing Education of school personnel.
3. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, op.cit., p.9.

Probably its greatest contribution to research and the dissemination of information has been help with the establishment of various centres such as "The European Centre for the Co-ordination of Research and Documentation in the Social Sciences" in Vienna, 1964, which helps bring together researchers from Eastern and Western Europe; "The European Centre for Leisure and Education" (E.C.L.E.) in Prague, 1968, to promote leisure, cultural activities and adult education in Europe; a "Scientific Co-operation Bureau for Europe", established in 1971, and the "European Centre for Higher Education" set up in Bucharest in 1972, intended to provide information, documentation, opportunities for liaison and exchange for teachers, and to encourage mobility amongst teachers. All of these centres have helped bring Europeans together to learn to co-operate, research and share the fruits of that research together.

Finally, the Nordic Council of Ministers is also concerned with educational research, innovation, transmission of information and co-operation. The countries involved in this much smaller international grouping include Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland and Iceland. Amongst the institutions under its general direction include the Nordic Folk Academy in Sweden, which attracts teachers not only from the Nordic countries but from further afield; the Nordic Journalists Courses held in Aarhus; the Nordic Institute for Studies in Urban and Regional Planning, and the Project for Nordic School Co-operation in Copenhagen. Others include Nordic Co-operation among Adult Education Organisations in Copenhagen, the Nordic Language and Information Centre established in Helsinki in 1979 and Experiments in Nordic Education for the Deaf and Blind set up in Oslo during 1980. Three information Bulletins for teachers, education authorities and other interested parties have been set-up - one of which covers news and developments in Pre-school,

another in School, and yet another in Adult Education. Each is published in Scandinavian and Finnish editions some three or four times a year. The Information Department also produces comparative studies of education in the Nordic countries, as well as project and conference reports.

The Nordic Council has also sought to promote educational research and innovation through the various projects instituted by Nordic School-Co-operation. For instance, the Bergen Project was set up to suggest techniques for observing individual child development, analysing the existing special education provisions to find out how best they could be improved, and working out the most appropriate and effective remedial treatment for the various categories of pupil. This project, which was completed in 1981, involved six or seven thousand school children in five towns - two in Denmark, and one each in Finland, Norway and Sweden.

The Environmental Education Project was begun in 1974, and its objectives included the production of teaching materials suitable for use in all Nordic schools, plans for in-service training of teachers, and schemes for promoting the exchange of teaching methods and materials.

There are plans for a project to co-ordinate schools experimenting with establishing contacts between themselves and the world of work under the title - "The Relationship between youth education and working life". The problem for Nordic School Co-operation here will lie in co-ordinating the efforts of the small isolated schools involved in this difficult project.

Nordic School Co-operation has also sought to develop inter-Nordic co-operation in the development of teaching material in marginal subjects such as the teaching of literature to deaf children by using video-recordings, or in minority subjects such as optics or the study of disease in plants.

Other projects have included the Nordic Languages Project, designed to strengthen the teaching of the Nordic languages by harmonising syllabuses, improving teacher training, developing teaching materials, and by the setting up of a Language Information Centre in Finland; and the Nordic History Project, concerned with the re-writing of the central episodes and problems of Nordic history.

Unfortunately, many of the activities of the Nordic Council tend to be inward-looking, but some efforts have been made to collaborate with the other international organisations. For instance, a glossary of educational terms has been compiled in Danish, Finnish, Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish and English during 1980 to help facilitate school co-operation at primary and upper secondary levels not only within, but also beyond, the Nordic Region.

Under the Cultural Agreement of 1971 it was explicitly declared that it was part of the task of the Nordic Council of Ministers to "lay the groundwork for co-ordinated effort in international cultural co-operation". In pursuance of this objective, reports from the Nordic Council have been laid before various international bodies. For instance, a report on "Environmental Education in the Nordic Countires" was presented to U.N.E.S.C.O. at the conference held in the U.S.S.R. during 1977, and another on "Sex Roles and Education" was printed in English, French and Swedish, and put forward at the eleventh session of the Council of Europe's Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education held at the Hague in 1979.

As already suggested, the primary objectives of the international organisations in providing documentation and information services has not been so much concerned with reaching teachers and interested members of the public as with guiding the deliberations of politicians, administrators and planners generally. Possible exceptions to this have

been the E.E.C. and the Council of Europe, which have specifically aimed to serve the needs of formal education, seeing this as an essential public-relations exercise designed to promote European consciousness.

In general, it is the national organisations, however, which have been specifically oriented to the needs of education, researching to find relevant information, and to find ways of presenting it effectively. Several of these have already been considered, from the points of view of the origins, development, objectives and the contributions they have made to the cause. Thus the Sussex European Research Centre (S.E.R.C.), the Centre for European Education (C.E.V.N.O.) in the Netherlands, and the British Section of the European Association of Teachers - which although part of an international organisation, the A.E.D.E., is one of a number of national units which operate more or less autonomously - have been examined in Chapter 5. Some other organisations which are functioning at the national level include the U.A.C.E.S. and C.I.L.T.

The University Association for Contemporary European Studies (U.A.C.E.S.) in London was set up to bring academic staff, researchers and post-graduate students engaged in teaching or research in contemporary European Studies into contact with one another. It aims to develop links with European organisations and institutions in Continental Europe and U.S.A. U.A.C.E.S. also organises residential and one-day conferences and seminars, publishes registers of research in progress and courses in European studies currently being taught at university, polytechnic and college in the U.K. The organisation also endeavours to improve resources for European Studies.(1)

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1. Centre for European Education, U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1981, p.22.

It has been difficult to decide where to include an account of C.I.L.T., the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research, in this study. At first sight it seemed more appropriate to the subject matter of Chapter 8, Language teaching - but clearly C.I.L.T. is far more a highly specialised information centre than it is an initiator of educational theories or methods of language teaching, nor is it an educational establishment engaged in the teaching of languages, although, as has been amply demonstrated, such nice distinctions are often blurred in practice.

The centre is based upon London, and its activities extend to providing a national service to educationalists, and so it seems appropriate to place it in the same category as S.E.R.C. or C.E.V.N.O., which differ from it qualitatively in that they specialise in serving the needs of European Studies teachers, rather than those of language teachers. In many respects the Institute of European Education at St. Martins College, Lancaster - described subsequently - comes closest to C.I.L.T., in having become involved in language work, albeit at the regional level.

C.I.L.T. was established in 1966 to provide:-

> "...advice and help about all aspects of language teaching. It has a large reference library, open to all who study, learn or teach languages, which included periodicals and audio-visual material. It provides a calendar of forthcoming conferences and short courses and is ready to give information and advice either personally or by letter or telephone on aspects of language teaching and research. C.I.L.T. co-ordinates a European research register and maintains a register of research in Britain. It also publishes a range of papers, reports and guides and will provide bibliographies".(1)

C.I.L.T. is funded from the D.E.S., the S.E.D. and the D.E.N.I. It is registered as an independent charitable institution, and is controlled by a board of governors appointed by, and answerable to, the Secretary of State.

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.16.

In 1983 the library of C.I.L.T. was extended to provide for a separate Resource Centre to serve the needs of teachers and researchers more effectively.(1)

The National Congress on Languages in Education (N.C.L.E.), which depends upon C.I.L.T. to provide it with a secretariat and for the publication of its reports, held its first assembly in 1978.

At the Second Assembly held at Durham in 1980 it called for a diversification of Language teaching at all levels - to enable more students to study another language than French. It advocated extension of language teaching in Sixth Forms and Further and Higher Education establishments, alongside to natural and social sciences, and as part of professional or vocational courses.

It called for changes in teacher training from traditional academic studies to communicative language studies skills, and stressed the need for in-service training, including visits abroad, for language teachers. Finally, it deplored educational cut-backs which threatened both the co-ordinating work of C.I.L.T., and the provisions for the teaching of minority languages in schools and universities, and called for a co-ordinated national language policy.(2)

During the following year, in September 1981, C.I.L.T. organised its own conference for one hundred teachers in schools and higher/further education establishments at the University of Durham at which there were calls for the development of a national policy for languages at all educational levels, a greater emphasis to be given to communicative skills in the teaching of languages, and for more students to be encouraged to continue language studies in the sixth form or at University as a "support subject".

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.11, January 1983, pp.18-19.
2. A. Moys, Secretary of the Standing Committee, National Congress on Languages in Education, Report of the 1980 Assembly, December 1980, p.1.

In April 1982 a Third Assembly of the N.C.L.E. was held at Nottingham University. In addition a number of short courses run by C.I.L.T. during 1982 one during April was run jointly with the Council for Educational Technology for language teachers by invitation only entitled - "Learning and Teaching Foreign Languages - what has the C.A.I. to offer"? Another meeting in June was a workshop organised jointly with the Goethe Institute - German Graded Objectives and Tests", and in conjunction with the co-ordinating committee of the G.O.M.I., "Methodology for the Communicative Classroom".

C.I.L.T. broke new ground in the same year in the initiation of plans for a language competition and festival for young people. In 1983 a pilot project was operated in the South West Region - in fifteen schools, five each in Avon, Gloucestershire and Somerset. The Competition was administered in two stages - with Round I administered internally by the schools involved - and consisted of the writing of essays in two languages chosen by the candidates from French, German and Spanish, and oral discussion of these essays. Round II was centrally administered and involved exercises in listening, comprehension and interpretation. The fifteen finalists had to prove their proficiency in two of the languages chosen, and were required to be under 19 years of age. There was also a "Creative Linguistic Activity Section" intended for boys and girls from eleven to eighteen years of age.

The Competitions culminated in a festival in Bristol during February 1984 at which candidates were able to take part in individual or group activities including singing, dramatic sketches, displays and videos in the languages of their choice. The competitions and festival were funded by outside sponsors. The whole project is intended to raise the standard of motivation amongst pupils studying languages, and

to present a more attractive image of language studies to the general public and to professional and commercial interests generally.

An important activity of C.I.L.T. from the beginning has been its publication of papers, reports, guides and bibliographies. In March 1981 C.I.L.T. published its "Sources of funds for Research in Language and Language Teaching", designed to help researchers find fund support, and it is divided into four sections:- Dealing with Research Grants, Preliminary Enquiries and Applications, Post-graduate Awards and Published Sources of Information. In July 1981 C.I.L.T. also published its "Directory of Organisations and Centres" for language teachers and students, designed to help them trace organisations, associations, offices, cultural centres and embassies offering various services to linguists and teachers.

In 1982 C.I.L.T. published its "Part-time and Intensive Language Study - A guide for adult learners" which looks into all the options open to the adult seeking to study a modern language. In 1983 C.I.L.T. published a new edition of "A Guide to Language Courses in Polytechnics and Similar Institutions, 1982-1983, which included a compendium of information on full and part-time courses, compiled by S.C.H.M.L. - Standing Conference of Heads of Modern Languages in Polytechnics and other colleges. It also published and edited a collection of papers for language teachers in comprehensive schools under the title "Teaching Languages in today's schools" and published the edited papers of the working parties of the N.C.L.E. Conference of 1980 - already referred to - under the title "Issues in Language Education".

Amongst the specialised bibliographies C.I.L.T. has published was a revised edition of its "Foreign Language testing" originally published in 1977, which has been entirely up-dated to 1981. It is intended both for teachers of modern languages and E.F.L., for which Part II provides

a select list of published tests and books, and for the researchers trying to keep abreast of modern developments, to whom Part I with its abstracts of articles from the principal periodicals may be of particular relevance.

C.I.L.T. also publishes B.B.C. T.V. Modern Language Teachers' Notes to accompany the courses in French, Spanish and German, and finally, there are publications for the teaching, testing and examining of French, Spanish, German, Italian and Russian, as well as brief notes for people seeking information on the courses available in a wide range of minority languages.(1)

Mention has already been made of the ill-fated Centre for European Education (C.E.E.) which all but ceased to operate as an international organisation when its headquarters in Brussels had to close down in 1980. However, a new international centre has been established in Bonn since 1981, with some aid from the European Commission in Brussels, and the Secretary is Bernd. Janssen, who is also responsible for the National Committee of the C.E.E. in West Germany. Since, however, the resources of this central body are very limited, it is inevitable that the national centres, of which there are currently thirteen scattered amongst the countries of Western Europe, should be considered as the effective documentation and information centres of C.E.E., as well as providing the means of co-ordinating the work of regional and local centres in the various countries. These functions can be demonstrated by reference to the activities of the U.K. Centre for European Education, which has its headquarters in the University of London Institute of Education. In the words of the first editorial page of the centre's newsletter, called'Euroednews'-

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1. C.E.E./U.K., Euroednews, No.1, January 1980, p.16; No.5, June 1981, p.38; No.6, November 1981, pp.21-22; No.7, February 1982, pp.21-23; No.8, June 1982, pp.6-7; No.9, November 1982, p.24; and No.11, June 1983, pp.18-19.

> "The Centre for European Education was founded in Brussels in 1974 ... to foster a European dimension in teaching... in Europe. In 1976 the Council decided to establish representative and active national committees which would be closer to educational realities in each of the countries concerned. The National Conference of the U.K. Centre for European Education is one of these committees. It has drawn together representatives from teachers' organisations, subject teaching associations, local authorities, the U.K. Department of Education, and other organisations interested in the European dimension in the curriculum, together with representatives from regional and local centres concerned in European Education, with the aim of providing information, advice and support for those who are involved in teaching about Europe, whether in European Studies courses or in the standard subjects of the school curriculum, to pupils from 5-19 in schools and Further Education Colleges, and to teachers in training".(1)

It is most relevant here, therefore, to identify some of the main British regional and local centres which exist specifically to serve the needs of European education, because, however much stress such organisations may choose to lay upon it, European education is, at best, peripheral to the main responsibilities of teachers' organisations, subject teaching organisations, and education authorities. However, first it is important to consider the other national co-ordinating bodies of the C.E.E. in the Netherlands, West Germany and France.

The Netherlands Centre for European Education operates from the same address as C.E.V.N.O. in Alkmaar. It was first established in 1978 and provides a much-needed complement to the work of C.E.V.N.O., with its preoccupation with educational research and publication, by providing a "forum for discussion and co-ordination"(2) in the Netherlands. It publishes its news bulletin three times a year.

The German Centre for European Education - Deutshes Komitee, EST/ZEB in Bonn, regards the European Schools' Day Competition as its "most important activity". It has also undertaken research into the

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1. C.E.E./UK., Euroednews, No.1, January 1980, Editorial on p.1.
2. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.5.

"basic knowledge and ideas which every pupil should have gained before leaving school".(1)

The Centre d'Education Européene in Paris, the French Centre for European Education, also appears to regard the administration of the European Schools' Day Competition as its chief activity. It would seem that whereas the U.K. and Dutch Centres see their chief concern as reaching pupils through their teachers, and providing co-ordination to the work of the local and regional centres; centres in West Germany and France lay their stress upon reaching the pupils through the European Schools' Day Competition. The European Schools' Day organisation is now more than thirty years old. Each year it organises, from its headquarters under the auspices of the Council of Europe, competitions for young people in three age groups - 12-14 years, 14-16 years and 16-19 years. The competitions are administered by the National Committees in each of the twelve member countries - Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Eire, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the U.K. The children in the youngest age group have a wide choice of European themes from which to produce a piece of art-work. The intermediate and older age groups can enter for the competition in either art or written work, in themes which require a lot of thought and research. The best contributors to the younger and intermediate group competitions receive cash and book awards, whereas the winner of the competition in the older group receives an international travel award to take part in a European Youth Forum. In addition, the writer of the best essay submitted from any one of the twelve participating countries is eligible for a gold medal award made annually by the Council of Europe. The aim of these awards is to

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1. C.E.E./U.K. ibid., No.1, January 1980, p.5.

stimulate what hopefully will become a life-long interest and concern for the European cause.(1)

Space does not permit a comprehensive consideration of regional and local information centres in each of the countries involved, and so a selection only of these co-ordinated by C.E.E./U.K. are considered below. Among these, it will be seen that several have elected to serve the needs of their regions and localities in quite distinctive ways.

Between 1978 and 1980 the European Studies Workshop for Teachers at the Bulmershe College of Higher Education in Reading was preoccupied with convening teachers from some fifteen schools in Hampshire, Berkshire and Oxfordshire to work out the details of a proposed new C.S.E. Mode III Joint Syllabus for European Studies which is designed to avoid cutting across language, geography, history and other subject areas. This Mode III finally secured approval from the Southern Regions Examining Board in 1980. It consists of five units to be undertaken in the fourth and fifth years of secondary education. They cover, 1. The School, 2. The family at home, 3. The family at play, all of which are studied in the fourth year. Then in the fifth year they cover, 4. The World of Work and 5. The Common Market, but at greater depth. Subsequently the panel of teachers has devoted its attention to selection and development of resources for the teaching of the syllabus. These resources have been included in a Teachers' Handbook, and with the help of a small E.E.C. grant a modest resource centre has been built up to help teachers who are seeking to implement the syllabus in their schools. The Centre is also engaged in a joint collaboration with Oxfordshire County Council Education Committee, Preston Polytechnic and the Padagogische Hochschule Rheinland/University of Bonn on a joint Anglo-German project financed by the E.E.C. to produce teaching material

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1. Pamphlet, "European School' Day" : Competitions 1976-7. pp.3-4.

on the E.E.C. and to undertake research into the problems common to such joint projects. In addition to these on-going research projects the Centre has run a number of successful language courses, including D.E.S. courses for local teachers about "Modern language teaching for the less-able", a One Year full-time Induction Course for Language Assistants, and Part-time Intensive Courses for French and German.(1)

The Essex European Resource Centre (The Colchester Institute) in Clacton, Essex, was first opened to teachers in the summer of 1980, and facilities were very soon afterwards extended to small groups of older pupils. A loan service of audio-visual materials for teachers of French, German and European Studies was also developed, and catalogues were published and made available to Essex schools. From the beginning there have been plans to organise In-service Courses for teachers, organise conferences for teachers and senior pupils, and to develop a Mode III Syllabus in European Studies in Essex. In 1980 their working group - The Essex European Studies Advisory Group, E.E.S.A.G., began by studying the implications of introducing 'O' level European Studies - A.E.B. or Cambridge Syllabuses - into the curriculum. In the same year a "Simulation Exercise Kit" entitled "The European Parliament in the Classroom" developed by Richard Ennals, an Essex Schoolmaster, was published by the Centre. A newsletter was also published during 1980, but after three successive issues, it was decided to channel news of Europe through the Essex Council's "Humanities Review", along with news of most other subjects in that sector of the curriculum.

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1. C.E.E./UK., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.16, No.2, June 1980, p.21, No.3, November 1980, p.18.

One-day Conferences for sixth formers have included "Success in the European Community : a matter of Relationship", and for fourth formers - "Europe between the Wars". Those for teachers have dealt with "European Studies in the Sixth Form", "Class links and Foreign Exchanges", "European Studies - Resources and Approaches" and "Current Developments in European Studies" amongst other themes.

Towards the end of 1980 a feasibility study was undertaken by the Essex European Studies Advisory Group into the possibility of supplementing an existing East Anglian Examination Board Mode I C.S.E. Syllabus with an Alternative Mode III C.S.E. - designed to utilise the "Outlook Europe" Course developed by Macdonald International. The new syllabus won the approval of E.A.E.B. and was offered first in September 1981. It focusses upon areas of politics and economics up until now neglected in the under-sixteen school curriculum, and lays an added stress upon study skills. E.E.S.A.G. has subsequently turned its attention to developing the resources needed to provide backing for the new course.

In 1982 a Twin Town Link already established between Thurrock in Essex and the Belgian City of Liège was expanded to embrace the entire County of Essex and the entire Province of Liège - with an eye to making a greater number of teacher and pupil visits and exchanges possible.(1)

Since its opening by the Rt. Hon. Edward Heath in 1978, The Institute of European Education, St. Martins College, Lancaster, has in particular acquired an expertise in schemes for the improvement of language teaching in its region as a means of promoting consciousness. While some of its activities have been concerned with research and innovation, and are therefore arguably more appropriate to the subject

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1. C.E.E./U.K. op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.17; No.2, June 1980, p.21; No.3, November 1980, p.20; No.4, February 1981, p.10; No.5, June 1981, p.20; No.6, November 1981, p.33; and No.7, February 1982, p.12;

matter of Chapter 7, the Centre has been primarily concerned with the transmission of the knowledge and methodology it has acquired to the teacher in the classroom situation, and in this it has been engaged in the dissemination of information. This work has grown out of projects for the provision, validation, certification of graded proficiency tests in a number of modern languages, notably French, German, Spanish and Italian, and their dissemination to the teachers of Cumbria/Lancashire and the North-west Region, generally. The project has expanded in both senses of the term - since from simply developing the tests by which secondary children can be better motivated and their attainments subjected to continuous assessment; it has since burgeoned forth to embrace the development of course material and computer soft-ware to develop the communication skills which the tests are designed to assess, and to involve the provision of study visits abroad and the broadening of the range and scope of the tests in terms of the levels and the languages covered. It has also expanded in terms of the number of language teachers introduced to the methods by in-service courses, the number of schools recruited to the scheme, the number of pupils taught by these methods - taking part in visits and exchanges as a consequence, and in the age and ability ranges to which the courses and tests are being applied - which now even extend to less-able students and adults.

Thus by 1980 graded tests had been developed in Levels 1, 2 and 3 for French, and Levels 1 and 2 for German and Spanish, and already at that time 12,000 pupils in Lancashire and Cumbria were studying for first and second level French, and first level German and Spanish.

By 1981 there were 20,000 pupils involved in tested courses for levels 1, 2 and 3 in French, and levels 1 and 2 in each of German and Spanish. By 1982 this number had again grown to 42,000 pupils in Cumbria, Lancashire, the Isle of Man, Trafford and Wigan. Schemes were

also afoot to introduce the tests to adult language learners, to encourage teachers who had built up course material for the implementation of the tests to publish it through the institute, and to promote the development of Mode III C.S.E. Examinations based upon the Level three language syllabuses and tests.

In the Spring of 1982 a small working party of twelve modern language teachers from Cumbria/Lancashire set about analysing the possibilities of computer-aided language learning under the guidance of the Schools Council Micro-electronics Project. Having devised ideas for computer programmes for language learners right across the ability range, these were developed at a Two-day Workshop and were introduced for trial assessment into Cumbria and Lancashire schools to be used in conjunction with the graded test courses.

By 1983 more than 60,000 pupils were engaged in courses towards Levels 1, 2 and 3 in French, German and Spanish, and Levels 1 and 2 in Italian. By then, too, the on-going effect of in-service courses for teachers and the growing number of participating schools, had been an expanding volume of suitable teaching material, based upon the tests and developed by Cumbria and Lancashire teachers for publication by the centre.

Demands for places on teachers' in-service courses on modern language teaching through the graded tests now greatly exceeded the places available. The use of the tests with adults has grown increasingly popular because they offer a low level goal for adult learners who are not yet ready, or can never be capable of, the final examinations available, to buoy them up once their initial enthusiasm has begun to wear off. In 1983 a new emphasis was placed on young adults learning modern languages for professional and vocational purposes, secretarial, managerial, catering, medical, legal, commercial

and similar. In March 1983 a One-day Conference - "Foreign Languages at work" was held with sponsorship from the British Overseas Trade Board and the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

The two local C.S.E. Examination Boards had been developing Mode III C.S.E. syllabuses and examinations in French based upon the Institute's graded tests at Level three, and by 1984 over 100 schools had adopted these examinations and the boards were planning to introduce similar C.S.E.s in German and Spanish for 1985.

In 1983 the first six computer programmes devised by the local working group of Cumbria and Lancashire teachers for use in the modern language departments of local schools, to be tried with younger and less-able pupils, were tested, and, following revision, were published. There are now plans to devise more programmes in 1983-4 and the Director of the Institute has devoted 20% of his work time to this particular project.

All these activities have put a considerable strain upon the Institute's resources so that in 1982-3 and again 1983-4, Cumbria and Lancashire education authorities have both seconded senior language teachers to the Institute to engage in administrative services and research projects on its behalf. In 1982-3 the research involved a general evaluation of the entire project, but in 1983-4 the seconded teachers have been engaged in preparing teaching material for the teaching of French and German, based upon Levels 1 and 2 in those languages, for publication in 1985. The aim is to encourage teaching through the medium of the languages concerned.

Courses and Conferences to reach educational administrators, teachers and pupils have been run - both in the modern language context as well as in other fields, to disseminate information and research developments.

In the context of European Studies the D.E.S. funded a short course for the regional advisers, head-teachers and secondary school directors of studies on "The European Dimension in the Secondary School Curriculum" in early 1980. In 1981 the Institute, in conjunction with the C.E.E./U.K., organised a Two-day Seminar for L.E.A. Advisers, Directors of Regional Centres, and University/College teachers concerning "Educating teachers to teach about Europe", dealing with aspects of initial and in-service training for teachers at university and college. Also in 1981 One-day Conferences for sixth-form students on British Membership of the E.E.C., The Development of European Art, and Europe and the Third World. This latter conference included a talk from the Rt. Hon. Edward Heath, who visited the Institute in November to talk about the Brandt Report.

The Institute has carried out investigation into the European Studies in Cumbria and Lancashire primary schools, and provided advice and guidance to teachers not only by visits to the schools, as for example, when in 1981 a Senior Lecturer of St. Martins College spent a term's study leave in Lancashire primary schools, but also through inviting teachers, individually and in groups, to visit the Centre. Efforts have been made to arouse primary school involvement with three towns which have twinned with Lancashire - Perpignan in France, Rendsburg in West Germany and Aalborg in Denmark - by the preparation and dissemination of teaching material designed for the nine to eleven year old age group in the local primary schools.

In connection with modern language studies the Institute, with the backing of the D.E.S. and local authorities, and in co-operation with the Cumbria and Lancashire L.E.A.s, ran a 3-day conference for practising modern language teachers on "A Communicative approach to Modern Language Teaching"during 1983. At this conference half of the available time was devoted to introducing the delegates to a wholly unfamiliar language

using the Communicative methods which the Institute is advocating, so that they could satisfy themselves as to the efficacy of the methods at first hand.

The Institute has always sought to popularise language teaching, and to improve its efficacy, by employing schemes like the Family Language Learning Scheme, in which children and their parents collaborate in parallel courses, and in organising overseas visits for children, young people, adults as well as the family groups.

In addition to encouraging modern language students in England, including those interested in European culture, to visit other parts of Europe, the Institute has also helped promote visits by foreign nationals to Britain. In this way it has been able to disseminate its expertise, acquired as a result of extensive research and experience. As an example, the visit in 1983 of students from the University of Erlingen-Nurnberg in West Germany may be cited, when the students sought to study the provisions for primary education in the North-West Region. Students from the University of Linköping in Sweden have also visited the Institute to study European education, and trainee teachers from Utrecht in Holland have come to study the theory and practice of English education.

Finally the Institute has supported research by Peter Schofield, Headmaster of the Carr Hill School in Preston, for development of teaching material for nine to thirteen year olds under the title "Learning about our European Community". The first three work-books "The Development of the European Community", "The Institutions of the Community", and "The Common Agricultural Policy" were tried out on the teachers and one thousand pupils in twelve primary, middle and secondary schools in Cumbria and Lancashire during Summer Term, 1981. After school criticism and evaluation, these work-books were published.

Meanwhile, two further titles have been prepared - "The Economic and Social Policies of the Community" and "The Community and the Wider World", which will also undergo evaluation before finally being published.(1)

The Rolle College Centre for International Studies in Exmouth is a centre operating as part of Rolle College of Education, developed to nurture the aspirations of teachers in the South-west region for teaching European Studies in schools. In January 1980 a Resource Assistant was appointed to the centre to begin collection and collation of European teaching material for loan to schools. As part of the same process a survey was conducted first in the secondary schools, in 1979, and subsequently in the primary schools during 1980, to ascertain what had so far been done to invest the school curriculum with a European dimension. This included circulating a questionnaire to all Devon primary schools to find out what material on Europe they would like the centre to obtain. On the basis of these enquiries it was soon realised that the centre was not near to the majority of schools in this vast, sparsely populated area, and so it was decided that in order to maximise the effectiveness of the centre in providing teaching materials to schools, and in order to facilitate fuller involvement of teachers in the project work of the centre - four sub-centres should be established - each with its own resource banks. The resources held in each sub-centre should also be copied and the duplicates lodged in the central Rolle College resource centre.

From 1980 on, the resource centre at Rolle has compiled and circulated a Resource Catalogue to schools, and this has been periodically up-dated as the resource centre has expanded. The 1983

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.20; No.2, June 1980, p.23; No.3, November 1980, p.19; No.4, February 1981, p.11; No.6, November 1981, pp.32-33; No.7, February 1982, pp.10-12; No.8, June 1982, pp.22-24; No.9, November 1982, pp.15-17; No.10, February 1983, pp.29-30; and No.11, June 1983, pp.11-12;

edition has also included the resources lodged in all the sub-centres. Since October 1982 each of the regional sub-centres has held week-long exhibitions on "Teaching about Europe" to encourage as large a number of teachers as possible to see what they have to show. So successful have these been that in 1983 it was decided to open further sub-centres, and in addition, funds have been made available to the existing sub-centres to enable them to provide more resources for teachers in their respective areas.

From the earliest time the centre has conducted conferences for teachers - to publicise its ideas, and where possible to involve teachers and students in its work, under the "South-west European Education Project" (S.W.E.E.P.). The first such conference was that held in June 1979 to which forty-nine primary and secondary teachers went, and which was intended to build up general interest in the area of European Studies teaching in the South-west. The film "Eurogame" was shown, and the conference succeeded in arousing demand for more resources for European Studies in the South-west, as well as for more conferences, both of which demands the centre has subsequently striven to meet.

At a subsequent conference held in November 1979, on "Berlin, a case for political education" - teachers also discussed the need for the centre, what they saw as its essential functions, and, arising out of a showing of the film "Eurogame" the previous June - some also demanded consideration of the possibility of preparing a special teaching pack on decision making in the European Community. This project is considered later.

In February 1981 the centre ran a conference for primary and secondary teachers from the South-west region on "The Brandt Commission's proposals and their implications for Europe and the Third World", and in March another entitled "Europe and the Third World" which led on to a

special teacher study-group making a visit to Berlin, and in November 1981 yet another conference entitled "Rich and Poor within the Community". The visit to Berlin was organised by the Centre in conjunction with the European Akademies there and in Schleswig-Holstein, and half of all the fifty delegates who attended the conference were from the Rolle College Centre.

In January 1982 the Rolle College Centre organised a conference in conjunction with the C.E.E./U.K., on "Europe in the wider world" attended by lectureres, L.E.A. officials, H.M.Is, S.C.E.I.U., representatives of C.E.V.N.O. and the World Studies Project, Directors of other Regional Centres, and a representative of the London Offices of the European Commission. Seminars met to discuss "Why Europe and the Wider World?", "Europe and the Third World", "A Curriculum Project on the Netherlands", "World Studies Project, 13-18", "The Value of Exchanges" and the "Core Curriculum".

In March 1982 the Conference "Europe and the Third World - Relationship after Brandt and Cancun" was called to discuss relationships since the Cancun Conference in Mexico, and was attended by fifty primary and secondary teachers. A report was published in June 1982.

In December 1982 a conference was held in Berlin at which forty-two delegates from S.W.E.E.P. at the Rolle Centre met with delegates from the European Akademie in Berlin to discuss the subject "Europe and the Wider World". In February 1983 another S.W.E.E.P. conference attended by fifty educationalists, including the Chief Education Officer for Devon and Senior Education Officers from Devon and Somerset, discussed "Education for a multicultural society in Europe". In March 1983 the centre, in conjunction with the South-west Consortium for Visits and Exchanges, organised a conference entitled "Exchange as a resource". Later in the year the Centre, in conjunction with the various L.E.A.s

of the South-west, conducted a conference dealing with "Special Education and the European Community".

Plans for the Centre to publish a newsletter to publicise its facilities, projects, resources and activities, as well as giving coverage to the work of its sub-centres, and to projects and events at national and international level, were discussed throughout 1982. The first edition of the newsletter was published in Autumn Term, 1982, and it has been published triennially ever since.

Proposals for a teaching pack on "Decision-making in the European Community" were first mooted, as already noted on p.384 above, following the showing of the film "Eurogame" at the initial conference put on by the centre in June 1979. By December 1980 the packs had been completed, one for the nine to thirteen year group, the other for the fourteen to seventeen year group. By February 1982 the centre had arranged for the two teaching packs to be tested out in a pilot scheme involving three secondary and three primary schools - and this process was finally carried through during the Spring Term of 1983. By then, however, it had been decided that the pack for the lower age group should be adapted to serve the needs of children of lower and middle secondary age as well, and that each pack should be piloted in six to eight schools of different size, and different kinds of location. At the time of writing the final date of publication for the packs has not yet been announced.

Over the years the centre has done all it can to promote visits to other European countries by trainee teachers and those engaged in in-service training from all over the South-west of England, and to make European students welcome to the centre. Thus, 1980, Rolle College of Education students visited Holland and Belgium, staying in Colleges of Education there to learn about the educational problems of those countries at first hand. Later in the year Kindergarten teachers from

Berlin came to the centre to study English Educational practice. During the Summer Holiday period two parties of students and teachers from the South-west region went out to Germany, the first to visit Berlin to examine the provisions for Kindergarten education there, and the second to study comprehensive education in West Germany. Also during 1980 a student exchange link was established between Rolle College and its counterpart in Grenada. Grenadan students spent two weeks at Rolle College to study English educational practice and mother-tongue teaching in the Summer of 1980, and a reciprocal visit to Grenada was undertaken by Rolle College students in April 1981.

Dutch trainee teachers from S.O.L., Utrecht and Zwolle College, and Belgian trainees from Kortrijk undertook courses of two-week's duration on current educational practice in the U.K. organised by the Rolle Centre in Spring 1982. Also over the Spring and Summer months of 1982 students and teachers from Nijmegen in Holland, as well as Belgium, Denmark, Spain and the U.S.S.R. visited Rolle to study the educational provisions in this country, and a group of sixteen teachers from the South-west visited Berlin. The Centre had by then established exchange links with Denmark and the Basque Mountain Region of Spain, and plans were afoot to establish similar links with Calabria Reggio in Italy, Finland, Germany, Belgium and Holland. In 1983 teachers from the region visited Aalborg in Denmark during April, and in August parties visited Calabria Reggio and Berlin. In October a party visited the Basque Region, and nearly all these visits subsequently entailed reciprocal visits by Danish, German and Spanish teachers. There are yet further plans to establish teacher and school links with Northern and Southern Ireland and with Greece.

Perhaps most distinctive of all Rolle College's contributions to European understanding has been the development of jointly-organised

link courses between Rolle College and S.O.L. College, Utrecht, in the Netherlands. Negotiations began in 1980, and it has always been hoped that similar schemes might develop with colleges in Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Italy, and Greece. The plan has been for a joint course to be a compulsory section of the teacher training for students at both institutions. The course is intended to include a practical examination of the educational problems of both countries, an examination of the theoretical background of educational systems which exist in the Community countries, and the major problems which confront them.

An in-service course on the "Study of Europe at both Primary and Secondary levels" was proposed in early 1982 to supplement the joint course planned between S.O.L. Utrecht and Rolle College, Exmouth. The course was to involve an evening per week for two terms plus three residential week-ends, and to be available at any one of four regional centres. Work involved would include preparation of an academic paper plus some curriculum materials designed by the teacher concerned for the school, the subject and the teaching level with which he or she was normally involved.

A three-month pilot scheme to test the course is to be conducted during academic year 1984-5 and, subject to its success, it is hoped to extend similar schemes to colleges in other European countries.

Finally, during 1983 the centre has continued to take its share in a national programme of research into young peoples' perceptions of other peoples and countries which is being co-ordinated by the Council for Research in Education. The Rolle Centre is making its contribution to the national project on behalf of the South-west region.(1)

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, pp.20-21; No.2, June 1980, p.23; No.3, November 1980, p.19; No.4, February 1981, p.11; No.6, November 1981, p.32; No.7, February 1982, pp.10-12; No.8, June 1982, pp.22-24; No.9, November 1982, pp.15-17; No.10, February 1983, pp.29-30; and No.11, June 1983, pp.11-12.

At the end of 1980, with a small grant from the European Commission, the North-east Regional Centre for Education about Europe, at the University of Durham, was set up with an Honorary Visiting Fellow to act as Co-ordinator, and given the mandate of promoting a European dimension through the centre. One of its first meetings was convened to ascertain what the local teachers and educationalists looked for from the centre.

The programme for 1981 included a school-based regional project to devise programmes on "Education about Europe", to be evaluated after use in three local schools. Two One-day Conferences were put on during the Autumn Term of 1981, dealing with Scandinavia and the Benelux Countries - one for teachers, the other for sixth-formers.

Finally, in 1981 plans were put in hand for a Seminar Conference for invited participants only as the North-east's contribution to the Conference Series arranged by the C.E.E./U.K's Regional Centre Standing Committee, R.C.S.C., which was intended to culminate in a National Conference in 1982. However, owing to inadequate funding of the Centre the Seminar Conference did not actually take place until July 1983. It was addressed by Maitland Stobart, Head of the Education Division of the Council of Europe in Strasbourg. In particular the Conference considered the contributions to Europe which might be made through music, art, architecture, geography and literature. The regional centre has also been active in other directions.

The Co-ordinator has visited Poland's National U.N.E.S.C.O. Committee, the European Parliament in Luxembourg and Brussels, the European Academy in Berlin and an International Seminar on "National Identity and European Consciousness" in Amsterdam. He has also attended R.C.S.C. Seminars at St. Martins College, Lancaster, on "Europe in Teacher Training", at S.E.R.C., Brighton, on "Europe through History teaching", and at Rolle College, Exmouth, on "Europe and the Wider World".

A new festschrift of essays written by members of the University School of Education under the title "Sacred cows in Education" were published in 1983(1) which included a paper entitled "European Studies, or Education about Europe - Whats in a name?". It was published to celebrate one hundred and fifty years since the University of Durham was founded.

The contribution the North-east Regional Centre has already made to the teaching of European Studies in the schools of the region has earned it small grants from the three local education authorities involved. This contribution has included help given to the Graduate Certificate and B.Ed. groups of the University School of Education, and the building up of resource material on Europe for local teachers. The aim of the centre is to encourage teachers of established subjects to become more European-minded and to learn to invest their subjects with a European dimension.(2)

The European Education Centre at Christchurch College, Canterbury, has been helping schools in Kent by offering resources for the teaching of European Studies and Modern Languages since the seventies, and enjoys the support of the Kent L.E.A. in this. Its success has been acknowledged by increased involvement on the part of the College and the L.E.A. in the provision of in-service support for European Studies and Modern Language. During 1981-2 the Centre was able to move into new premises.

In addition to its services to schools, the Centre has done what it can to promote student and teacher mobility to and from Europe.

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1. "Sacred Cows in Education", Essays in Reassessment. F. Coffield and R. Goodings (Eds.) Edinburgh University Press, 1983.

2. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.3, November 1980, p.20; No.4, February 1981, p.12; No.6, November 1981, p.35; No.7, February 1982, p.14; No.10, February 1983, p.10; No.11, June 1983, pp.12-13;

Twelve students made a six-week visit to the Canterbury European Education Centre as part of a joint-studies project funded by the E.E.C. Some of these students came from a teachers' college in Liège in Belgium, others from a similar institution in Amsterdam. Students from the same Amsterdam College also visited Kent in 1980-2 for two weeks to engage in sociological projects. Two teachers from Schleswig-Holstein in West Germany visited the Canterbury Centre to discuss the development of educational links and exchanges of ideas with a grant from the British Council. Finally eight Canterbury students visited Amsterdam for a month's teaching in Dutch schools and colleges to acquire experience counting towards a diploma for the teaching of English as a foreign language (E.F.L.).(1)

Other local and regional centres in the U.K. include those of the Oxfordshire County Council Curriculum Development Advisory Schemes - which operates centres at Witney and Henley-on-Thames; Avery Hill College; the Centre for Learning Resources of I.L.E.A.; the Edgehill College of Higher Education at Ormskirk; the Further Education Staff College, Coombe Lodge in Bristol; Leicester Education Department; Manchester University Department of Education; Rotherham Education Department; Winstanley College; Wolverhampton Polytechnic Faculty of Education; and Worcester College of Higher Education amongst others. The scope and quality of these centres is clearly very varied, as demonstrated from our small study sample - some exercising an almost national influence, others very restricted in their sphere of influence; yet again, some having adopted very specialised roles - as for instance St. Martins, Lancaster where language testing is a major function, and S.E.R.C. in Brighton, which places its stress upon curricular reform - and as a consequence come to exercise a more than

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.5, June 1981, p.28.

regional influence in that respect.

The work of the various information and documentation centres at national, regional and local levels, not to mention international level, is often severely restricted by lack of resources. Some of the centres may enjoy financial support from international European organisations, some, too, from national governments, local education authorities, etc., However, in addition to such public and official sources of funding, an important element in their support may also be provided by various trusts which have been financed from industry, commerce or by private subscription, and are concerned with identifying those European enterprises which, on the multiplier principle, are seen as most likely to issue in the greatest benefit to the European cause, or some aspect of it. Below, several such trusts which exist to supplement official support available to European research and documentation are examined.

The Kreyssig Fund was named after the first signatory of the European Parliament's resolution of 1959 which allocated funds for the tasks of educating young people and informing the public about the development of the European Community. Each year the money available is allocated in two main fields of action - the schools, and youth organisations or institutions engaged in adult education. Grants may be awarded centrally for projects involving co-operation, collaboration and exchange between two or more European member states, or nationally, regional and local projects. One important criterion is the potential of a project for being a "multiplier", by reaching a wider public, leading on to "follow-up" activities or by culminating in widely-read and stimulating reports.

In the sphere of schools, grants may be awarded for primary or secondary school activities, or for the work of providing initial or in-service training for teachers. Such activities may include

preparation and disemination of teaching materials, e.g. kits, films or video-casettes, on Europe, promotion of collaboration or exchange between teachers or teacher training staff, or organisers of seminars, training sessions and working links. Applications may also be accepted from organisations and any non-governmental bodies engaged in European activities.

Activities supported in the out-of-school sector may include international or national youth organisations. Normally grants are only available to cover part of the costs of the project, and some evidence of additional funding may be required. Similarly, the grants are only awarded for a year at a time, and long-term projects have to re-apply without any assurance of continued support. At the centralised level the Kreyssig Fund has been used to produce the European Documentation - Schools Series - which has provided teachers with information about Community policies and the economic and social policies in member states, as well as details about the inter-relationships between member states and non-member states. These documents are published ten times a year.

This fund, which stood at £900,000 in 1979, has supported many projects including the C.E.E. itself and the "Europe in the School" research put forward by C.E.E., as recounted above.

The European Educational Research Fund, based in London, is a charitable educational trust whose income comes from private subscriptions, donations and covenants from individuals, industry and commerce. The fund's objectives include promotion of education by schemes for the teaching or the study of history, geography, science, art, literature and the culture of the European countries, particularly those of Western Europe, with special emphasis upon exchanges of young people in the eighteen to thirty-five year age group.

Expenditure in the year ending March 31st 1979 was in the region of £21,400, in the following year £12,750. During year ending March 31st 1980 funds went to the British Committee of the School's Day Organisation, to the Leicestershire L.E.A. to fund student exchanges with Italy and projects between three European countries, to the University of Reading Department of Agriculture for a student exchange with Lille, to the National Union of Students hosting a meeting of student organisations in the E.E.C. member states, to the European Movement in conjunction with the Federal Trust for Education and Research for organising a Three-day Educational Conference, and to the University Association for Contemporary European Studies to provide for the administration of a programme of studies on European Integration. Grants in the year ending 31st March 1982 were worth £18,780, and amongst other causes funds went to the city of London Polytechnic to organise a tour of the Netherlands to study management systems, to the European Association of Teachers to help finance a visit to Strasbourg and Brussels, to the International Social Educational Exchanges (U.K.) to help fund exchanges with Europe, to Park Mains High School, Strathclyde to pay for a delegation of senior pupils to visit the International Science Fortnight, and to the University of Sussex School of European Studies to help man the Eurotour Scheme.

In addition to such diverse projects which receive particular grants, the Trust endeavours to maintain a Speakers' Service for all kinds of meetings, including Sixth-form Conferences, and provides funds to help young people visit the European Institutions and to attend international conferences or meetings of European youth organisations.(1)

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.7; No.3, November 1980, p.32; No.6, November 1981, p.40; and No.9, November 1982, p.24;

The European Cultural Foundation has already been referred to at some length in Chapter 5. To gain support from the Foundation, projects must be directed towards increasing the public's awareness of Europe, and must involve collaboration between at least three European states. Grants are only made for one year, and are only intended to cover part of the total cost of a project, indeed it is necessary for the project directors to have evidence to show that they already have resources to cover the rest of the project. Finally, on completion of the project, a report of it is required.

In 1978 1.7M. Guilders were awarded to 35 beneficiaries, and in 1979 1.8M. Guilders was paid out to 25 beneficiaries in seven European countries. In 1979 beneficiaries included organisers of a European Poetry Festival in Belgium, the publishers of Cadmos - a quarterly magazine on European History and ideas published in French, a study by Chatham House on the future of European Diplomacy, a Swedish International seminar on library policy, the 1980 Konigswater Conference, and the C.E.E. for continuation of the "Europe in the School" Project. To carry out some of its longer projects the E.C.F. has established the Institute of Education of the Université Paris IX, which is primarily concerned with the field of post-compulsory education, which has been responsible, as already noted on p.187-8 above, for the "Plan Europe 2000" Project, but also for the setting up of research institutes elsewhere. These have included an Institute for European Environmental Policy set up in Bonn, 1976; an Institute for International Co-operation set up in Madrid, 1977; a European Co-operation Fund established in Brussels, 1977; a European Centre for Political Studies set up jointly with the Rowntree Trust in London, 1978, and a European Centre for Work and Society founded in Utrecht, 1979. All these institutes have been set up to continue research and promote international discussion. The Paris University

Institute of Education has more recently been involved in research into employment and unemployment, and published a study on part-time work. Since 1976 the E.C.F. has, through the Institute of Education in Paris, been responsible for the administration of funds provided by the E.E.C. and E.C.F. jointly, and payable to institutions of higher education for joint projects between at least two European countries. These joint projects may take the form of teacher or student exchange; or the teaching of joint courses between the institutions concerned as part of their overall teaching programmes. All such projects must be of at least three months duration, and joint research programmes are not eligible unless they are related to the development of a joint teaching programme.

Grants are normally worth about 4,000 e.u.a. (European Units of Account), - the name given to the monetary unit used in pricing the Community budget - worth .888671 grams of fine gold in terms of the gold content of the U.S. Dollar in 1944. In 1980 the current value of 4,000 e.u.a. was £2,600. The grant is intended to cover travel and subsistence expenses for the organisers of the joint programmes, the preparation and translation of course material, the arrangement of meetings to plan and monitor the programmes, and the compilation of general programme information. In addition, since 1980 support has also been made available to finance the travel and subsistence of students and staff engaged in the joint programmes. The ceiling for such grants is 10,000 e.u.a. or about £6,500.

Since 1976, in the first six years of the scheme, two hundred and seventy such joint projects have received support, and some ninety such grants were awarded in 1982-3 alone. Programmes supported have covered a wide range of subjects - these have included engineering, aeronautics, architecture, medicine, modern languages, theology and education.

Within this total, U.K. institutions of Higher Education have enjoyed an extraordinary level of successful grant applications, and programme links have been established with all the other European countries participating.

Projects in 1979-80 have included several leading to joint qualifications - such as that between Middlesex Polytechnic and the Ecole Superieure de Commerce in Reims in Business Administration, which more recently has also involved Fachhochschule, Rentlingen, West Germany. Joint projects in 1981 included one to develop a joint curriculum in the training of teachers for handicapped children between Colleges of Education in Chester, U.K. and Zeist in the Netherlands; one for a scheme in Scandinavian Studies between University College, London, Frankfurt in West Germany and Odense in Denmark; another collaborating in Sports Sciences between Loughborough University and the German Sports Academy in Cologne; and one to develop joint courses in Plant Biotechnology between Nottingham University and the University College in Cork, Eire.

Amongst some recent projects supported by the E.C.F. has been the B.B.C./Open University Eight-part European History Television Series "Conflict and Stability in the Development of Modern Europe, 1789-1970" which it was intended would be shown over a period of four years - and which was in fact rebroadcast on Dutch Television during 1983.

In 1978 the E.C.F., at the request of the European Commission, established the Central Information Unit of EURYDICE - the Community's co-ordinated international information unit - in Brussels, and it became operative in 1980. The E.C.F. has since been responsible for all administrative and budgetary matters relating to the central unit, although for its operation it is placed under the responsibility of the Commissioner in charge of the Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs, Education and Social Training.

In May 1981 the Board of Governors of the E.C.F. also called upon school and university authorities everywhere to encourage at least one foreign language in all educational establishments, and to provide opportunities for students to study at least two contemporary foreign languages at University entrance level. They also called for the diversification of the languages offered, and wished to encourage life-long learning of languages outside formal education. They declared their willingness to finance studies and related activities to define the needs of initial and continuing education in Modern Languages, and to develop the art of teaching European Languages and cultures.(1)

The most recent E.C.F. initiative has been to declare its support for the "European Foundation" - designed to promote European consciousness and identity amongst its citizens, and set up by the member states of the European Community on March 29th 1982.

On the 14th May 1982 the Board of Governors of the E.C.F. made the following declaration:-

> "The European Cultural Foundation has made a considerable contribution to European co-operation over more than twenty-five years. It is ready to co-operate with the new foundation as soon as it is approved by the appropriate institutions. Its trans-national network, which covers the whole of Europe and is fully operational, is accessible at short notice and can yield rapid results within the framework of a joint programme.
>
> One of the aims of such a joint programme would be to extend to all the countries of Europe the following activities as described in Article five of the agreement establishing the European Foundation -
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> - to foster understanding of the European idea and information on the countries of this continent and their history;
> - to study the means by which European countries may preserve and develop the common cultural heritage taking account of the contemporary development of society and technology;

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.1, January 1980, p.3; No.2, June 1980, pp.8-9; No.3, November 1980, p.32; No.4, February 1981, pp.21-22; No.5, June 1981, p.27; No.6, November 1981, p.26; No.9, November 1982, p.25; No.10, February 1983, p.36;

- to encourage the study of languages of the countries in Europe and opportunities to put such knowledge to practical use;
- to foster exchanges of persons between the countries of Europe including professional exchanges;
- to prepare and promote programmes to meet the interests and requirements of young people;
- to support cultural and other projects in order to demonstrate in an attractive and popular fashion the European identity and co-operation between the peoples of Europe".(1)

As the E.C.F. itself observed:-

> "...co-operation along these lines between the European Cultural Foundation, the European Foundation and the Council of Europe, will be an important step towards a Europe which could once again be a source of hope and inspiration to its peoples".(2)

To conclude, the dissemination of information about Europe is a field in which a proliferation of international, national, regional and local centres has grown up. At first sight there might appear to be a great deal of wasteful duplication, but a moment's reflection will recall to mind that all centres for research, documentation and dissemination of information must draw ultimately upon local source material, and that any attempt to centralise such functions would only serve to cut off organisations from their grassroots. Furthermore, many centres have developed a local monopoly for their services, or else they have acquired an expertise necessary for them to make some specialised contribution to the needs of teachers, researchers, and students over a wider area. However, more - not less - needs to be done in order that a wider cross-section of the European public, which is still not being reached at all, is made aware of Europe and its progress towards integration. If the resolution of the"E.E.C. Council and Ministers of Education for an Action Programme in the field of Education" of February 9th 1976 is examined closely, it advocates

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1. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.10, February 1983, p.37.
2. C.E.E./U.K., op.cit., No.10, February 1983, p.37.

reaching not only "those responsible for education and those receiving it at all levels" but also "the citizens of the Community", generally.(1) In point of fact, however, it would seem that nearly all the work of the international organisations, but also the national, regional, and local information and document centres has been devoted to reaching teachers and the students and pupils, in various sectors of formal education which already exist.

Although many educationalists see the future responsibility of education as providing a life-long service for all Europeans this is not yet the case, and although it would be fair to say that the various Information and Documentation Centres do endeavour to answer enquiries from the general public when called upon to do so, this is a comparatively small part of their work. Most of these general enquiries are from researchers, politicians, and other people with specialist interests in Europe.

Clearly what is needed is a more outgoing campaign for the dissemination of information about Europe and the process of integration, to reach adults who are not involved or likely to be involved, in formal education again.This is probably the bulk of present-day Europeans, and if European consciousness is to be nurtured within a few decades - the campaign needs to be across the whole spectrum of society, since otherwise the effects of a campaign focussed upon students and school children will not be able to permeate the whole of society for at least another whole generation, probably far longer.

Because, of all the mass media, television is the one which reaches more households and a wider spectrum of the public - in terms of class, income, age and culture, a natural development for reaching the

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1. Resolution of the Council of the Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, comprising an "Action programme in the field of Education", dated 9th February 1976, No.C38/1 Point IV, p.3, paragraphs 8-12.

European public would be more intensive exploration of this medium. At present the number of channels on European televisions vary from country to country. In the Netherlands a large number of channels is available, but this includes German, French and English channels as well as Dutch ones, and although these are watched - particularly by young people - they do not contribute to European consciousness. They may even be felt to intrude, as American films and sit-coms may be resented by many people in the U.K.

In the U.K. there are a limited number of educational programmes produced about Europe, and occasionally French programmes, in particular, are shown with sub-titles. Only a very limited number of programmes however, have been produced for European audiences, notably the "Eurovision Song Contests" and the "Its a Knockout Competitions", both bland concoctions, avoiding anything which might alienate any sector of the audience by sticking to a "common denominator" of melody and humour. Such a policy is unlikely to do anything to promote Europe. Since no European country can sustain as many viewing channels as they do in the U.S.A., any attempt to create an additional new one devoted to European Programmes might arouse resentment, unless it was funded by all the European states for showing throughout the Community, that is to say, unless it was an extra channel, not an expropriated national one.

It would be practical, with the Satellite technology already being developed, to set up a genuine European television authority - producing programmes for the whole of Europe, dedicated to representing Europe's common problems, culture and social interests, and helping nurture her identity. Local Cable television could probably perform a similar function locally, transmitting European programmes without coming into direct competition for space on existing national channels. It is

doubtful whether radio offers similar potential, and possibly the time is not yet ripe for European newspapers and periodicals - particularly since there is not yet a wide enough bi-lingual readership, let alone a multi-lingual one. Already the film industry and show-business are both international fields - but they tend to be transatlantic in orientation, again, because of dependence on a predominantly English-speaking axis. They are also, by their nature, heavily dependent upon market support, and cannot afford to produce material for an uncertain market. Television, which can be financed by governments, by the public (through licence fees), or by commercial advertising or franchises, and probably in other ways, is more able to publish material for an, as yet, unformulated or undeveloped market, and as a result is better equipped for the task of helping to create a worthwhile European clientele amongst Europe's 260 million people.

Probably the most limiting factor upon the growth of European information activity is lack, not of enthusiasm, but of financial resources. Here the economic base depended upon by E.C.F. may suggest one way forward, since fund raising based upon man's universal propensity to gamble would surely be able to tap a vein of wealth less likely to diminish than the grants from official sources, which are under threat during this current economic recession.

Other possible means of attracting funds could be through the establishment of co-operative industries, building societies, tourist agencies, and insurance trusts which operated on a European scale, facilitating international business as well as attracting international funds.

CHAPTER XII: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 5. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

It might reasonably be supposed that, of all the approaches adopted by formal education for the promotion of European unity, the one for which it was best suited was the development of European or international schools and colleges. If only Europe was already united, such schools would no longer be so much needed, but so long as Europe remains divided, the nearest a young European can hope to come to experiencing the total European environment with an appropriate intellectual and social climate, is through European schools and colleges, of which a number have emerged in postwar Europe.

Unfortunately, these educational experiments have displayed certain limitations which make them quite inappropriate of the needs of the majority of young Europeans. On the other hand, it remains desirable that the worthwhile aspects of these experiments should be emulated elsewhere.

The intention of this chapter will be to examine these existing schools and colleges in order to identify the limitations which render them inappropriate, but at the same time to identify those aspects worthy of wider emulation, if in future we are to extend a "European experience" in education to as many of Europe's young people as possible.

Since it has probably been the European Economic Community which has been the organisation most responsible for the development of European schools and colleges, a brief look at Community thinking on the subject in the recent past is relevant and constructive here. As early as March 1974, in its communication to the Council of Ministers of that date, the European Commission argued that it was then:-

"...opportune to consider the possible extension of the idea of European Schools more widely within the European Community, taking into account the experiences of the existing schools. The possibility of extending this idea should not be tied to places where European Community institutions exist. In this context, the desirability and feasibility of supplementing existing educational provisions should be explored in cities and/or regions where there are large populations of immigrant families, or at the borders between states or where there may be special opportunities to introduce a distinctive European dimension.

The Commission, therefore, proposes to establish a special study group with a brief to inquire into the scope for extending the idea of European Schools and alternative ways of achieving this objective. The Commission proposes to invite the governing council and staffs of the existing European schools to submit their own suggestions, in the light of their own experience of developments to date".(1)

In the Council's subsequent draft resolution, dated 18th May 1974, the Council took "... note of the Commission's proposal to establish a study group to examine the scope for extending the system and idea of European Schools".(2)

As a result of the meeting of 9th February 1976, the Council and Ministers for Education meeting within the Council resolved upon an action programme in the field of education which included, under Point IV, paragraph 6, a resolution to study, at Community level:-

"The setting up of European or international-type establishments following specific curricula and using several teaching languages".(3)

However, according to the progress report on the implementation of this action programme subsequently submitted by the Education Committee

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1. Commission of the European Communities, "Education in the European Community", Communication to the Council presented 11th March 1974, Bulletin Supplement 3/74, Luxembourg, p.15, paragraphs 60-61.

2. Draft Resolution of the Council of the European Communities and of the Conference of Ministers of Education meeting within this Council for co-operation in the field of education, OJC 58, 18th May 1974, op.cit., p.22.

3. Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council, Resolution comprising an action programme in the field of education on 9th February 1976, C 38/1, 19/2/76, p.3, Point IV, paragraph 6.

to the Council of Ministers of Education meeting within the Council in 1980:-

> "In November 1976, the Commission organised a colloquium on schools of a European and international type attended by representatives from member states and from a number of the schools themselves. A further meeting of non-governmental experts was held in March 1977. It was in the light of these discussions that in May 1977 the Education Committee first considered the desirability of creating further schools of this type. Much was made during the Committee's discussion of the experimental nature of the existing establishments and of the problems, notably financial, which would be created if their numbers were greatly expanded. Attention was also focussed, however, on the valuable contributions which such schools make to language learning and the benefits which would flow from making their experience more widely available.
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> It was against this background that the Education Committee decided during further discussions in 1978 not to recommend the establishment of any new schools as such but rather to concentrate on the proposals concerning the encouragement of schools teaching through more than one language",(1) which has constituted paragraphs 17-19 of the Action programme of 1976.

It appears therefore, that the plans to extend the benefits of European Schools to a greater number of European children and young people have so far foundered for fear of the vast expense such a project might entail, although it is possible that fear of arousing parental opposition in some quarters, or misgivings regarding the wider applicability of this type of school, may also have weighed with the decision-makers.

This chapter is primarily concerned with examining the existing international schools and colleges.

First, it is appropriate to take a critical look at the European Schools which have grown up as a consequence of an E.E.C. initiative, which exist primarily to serve the needs of children of officials employed in the institutions of the European Communities, including

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1. Education Committee Progress Report on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976, 8137/80 dated 27th June 1980, pp.13-14, paragraphs F1 and 2.

EURATOM, and in the case of the Munich and Culham Schools - those employed in the European Patent Organisation and European JET project, respectively.

Although children from these sources have first claim on the available places, the schools:-

> "can and do take other children without regard to language, nationality, religion or social position, and in fact now have quite a number of pupils from all strata of society ... rubbing shoulders and adding to the distinctive flavour of the schools. Since no boarders are taken the pupils are practically all children of families permanently settled in the locality".(1)

The locations, origins and aims of the nine established schools have already been indicated in Chapter 5. The schools vary considerably in size - the largest also being the oldest of the schools in Luxembourg, dating from 1957, and the smallest being the one in Munich, which has been overtaken in size by its U.K. counterpart in Culham. All of the schools contain nursery, primary and secondary departments, which are organised into linguistic sections, since all of the schools follow a common curriculum which lays a great stress upon the learning of several languages by all pupils in the course of their school career. All of the secondary pupils are prepared for the European Baccalaureate Examination, of which more details are given later, which is an examination recognised throughout the European Community, and in several other European countries, as an acceptable qualification for university entry purposes.

To appreciate the detailed assessment and specific criticisms of the European Schools which follow, it is relevant to consider at this point, the common organisation and curriculum of all the schools, as well as the harmonised syllabuses and timetables which operate right

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1. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, "Schola Europaea", Terms and conditions of admission, KX-23-77-542-EN-C, Luxembourg, July 1977, p.22.

across all the various language sections of each department in all of the primary and secondary departments of the various European Schools.

It will also be necessary to consider the nature of the European Baccalaureate Examination for which all of the pupils are being prepared, and towards which, therefore, all the work done in the schools is oriented. In recounting these details it will be readily seen that in all aspects the European Schools have been strongly based upon the Humanist Tradition of Continental European Education.

As regards organisation, the nursery department of each school caters for pupils of 4 to 6 years, the primary department for pupils from 6 to 11 years of age, and the secondary department for pupils from 11-18 years.

There are six official languages recognised in the Community at large - English, Danish, Dutch, German, French and Italian - so that when six year olds enter the primary school, they are called upon to identify their "Mother Tongue" - not necessarily their language from infancy, but the one in which they elect to receive their basic education. It is in this language they will be taught their three Rs, but they are also expected to study a second language - English, French or German - which they are taught orally by the direct method, and which is destined to become their "Langue vehiculaire" or working language - the one in which, for some six hours per week at primary level, they will undertake singing, drawing, art and crafts, and P.E. The time devoted to tuition in a foreign language is known as their "European hours" - since during these lessons each week the children are grouped by their age or sex and never by their country of origin.

The Secondary Course is divided into two stages - one of three and another of four years - making seven years in all. The first three years may be regarded as an intermediate or diagnostic stage

during which the pupil's aptitudes are continously assessed with an eye to making the best possible choices for future specialisation. With this in mind, there is a common core to the curriculum. At this stage, too, while grammar, literature and mathematics continue to be taught in the "mother tongue", history, geography and biology, taught in the same mother tongue at first, are presented in the pupil's working language from the beginning of the third year. In preparation for this - study of the working language has already been intensified from the beginning of the secondary stage, and the pupils have in addition been introduced to a second modern language.

Halfway through their second year pupils are required to opt either for the Latin Department or the Modern Department. In the Latin Department the pupils have four hours tuition per week in Latin for the remainder of the second year, and five hours tuition in year three. In the Modern Department the same hours are devoted to the study of science, and the additional study of mother tongue and modern language. The remainder of their work remains the same throughout this early secondary stage.

It is in the upper secondary stage that specialisation really begins in earnest since it is at the beginning of the fourth year that pupils must elect to enter one or other of five separate departments:- Classics proper - Latin and Greek; Latin with Modern Languages - in which an additional modern language takes the place of Greek; Sciences - which involve Latin plus advanced mathematics and science; Modern Languages - where there is stress placed upon scientific subjects, and where Latin, as well as Greek, is replaced by yet another modern language; and Economics and Social Science - which also includes modern languages.

In the lower secondary stage the less-academic pupils, instead of

opting for the Latin or Modern Departments during their second year, have undertaken additional mathematical and language studies. Students deemed unsuitable for the Baccalaureate at the upper secondary stage at Luxembourg, Mol and Varese can opt for a shorter, two year, leaving course, which, however, is so designed that any decision to opt in or out of the longer academic courses can be reversed by the pupil at a relatively late stage - because at least some of the subjects are taught to joint classes.(1)

Like the organisational structure of the schools and the school curriculum, so, too, the subject syllabuses are also harmonised in order that "pupils in all language sections receive the same education and all benefit alike from the classes they attend together". With languages regarded as central to the essential purpose and philosophy of the European school, "teaching methods in the six language sections are completely harmonised ... Special emphasis is placed on the pupil's second or working language. All pupils, irrespective of the section to which they belong, must attend a given number of classes in their working language, an arrangement exceedingly useful to them in acquiring fluency. Pupils from all language sections come together for physical education and art classes, where all six languages can be used simultaneously".(2)

In literature "much attention is paid to examining the influence of writers in neighbouring lands, so that pupils can come to appreciate the greatness of the Community Countries' common stock of thought and art". In philosophy "care is taken to cover the main schools of thought and different methods of approach. To ensure the fullest objectivity

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1. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., pp.4-10.

2. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., pp.14-16.

teachers have instructions to make a particular point of expounding and elucidating philosophical writings in detail".(1)

As regards geography and history teaching, since 1981 the syllabuses have been substantially reformed, since the social sciences, along with languages, have been singled out as subjects which lend themselves to the task of providing pupils with European consciousness. Special attention will now be given to them in the European School curriculum.

The policy is to teach civics or social studies with a strong local emphasis in the lower secondary school stage, and then to teach history and geography as separate subjects from the fourth year onwards. Even so, the two subjects are taught closely linked by social science themes. Thus, history and social studies are taught, according to the recommendations of the Board of Governors, to "give pupils a broad understanding of the evolution of Europe ... (giving particular attention) to the political and social ideas underlying this evolution".(2) The European themes identified for consideration in this paper were those identified by the C.C.C. in their 1978 teachers' seminar at Donaueschingen, and listed in full in the report of that conference,(3) although the list had in fact been drawn up at their first history conference at Elsinore in 1965. This list has already been summarised on p.269 of Chapter 8 above. It is also recommended that certain social science themes, such as the different forms of economic organisation, the concept of power and its expression in different political systems, concepts such as the rights and duties of the individual and the role played by powerful institutions such as church, army and state should be presented through the history syllabus.

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1. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., p.11.
2. Board of Governors, European Schools, "History, geography and Social Studies in years 4 and 5", EE/291/81/EN, 7th July 1981, p.1.
3. Report of the first Council of Europe Teachers' Seminar, op.cit., Strasbourg, 1978, Appendix I, pp.31-32.

As regards the Geography and Social Studies, this is to be taught, according to the same paper, "to give pupils a broad understanding of the essential elements of physical and human geography, with particular reference to Africa, Asia, the Americas and Europe. These essential features and patterns will be established through detailed studies of contrasting areas. Pupils will be encouraged to examine the distribution and spatial organisation of both natural and man-made phenomena in the areas mentioned above".(1)

The particular social themes identified as appropriate to be presented through the medium of geographical studies are "relationships between man and his environment, not only the physical environment but rather ... (the cultural environment) which includes custom and tradition, man's knowledge and perception, in addition to the wide variety of social and economic policies prevailing in each area".(2) The elements of physical and human geography through which these social scientific themes ought to be presented in the context of Africa, Asia, the Americas and Europe include the following:-

The earth in the universe; the oceans, the meteorological bases of world climates; the evolution and structure underlying world relief, and The growth and distribution of world population; human migration; the Developing Countries and their population characteristics; Racial segregation.

Mans' occupation of space - urban and rural settlement, its functions and relationships. Communication and trade.

Man and his environment. The last two years of the syllabus is devoted to the study of the Countries of the Community, with the emphasis placed upon their diversities.

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1. Board of Governors, European Schools, op.cit., p.5.
2. Board of Governors, European Schools, op.cit., p.6.

Biology in the lower secondary stage, is studied for two hours weekly, covering zoology, botany and geology. In the upper secondary stage pupils in the Classics, Latin and Modern Languages, and Economics and Social Science Departments give more time to biology than those in the Science and Modern Language Departments. Whereas students in the former cover human anatomy and physiology as well as general biology, students in the latter only undertake animal and plant anatomy and physiology.(1)

Great stress is placed upon mathematical studies in the European Schools. During the lower secondary stage four hours per week are devoted to it, and later pupils studying Science and Modern Languages devote seven hours weekly to mathematics, whereas those studying Classics, Latin and Modern Languages and Economics and Social Science only devote three hours. The syllabus for mathematics is a rigorous one designed to meet the requirements of the most exacting national syllabuses in the Community, and is harmonised right across the various language sections of the schools. The European Schools have come to terms with the modern mathematics, but, whereas in the lower school mathematics is taught to demonstrate its relevance to everyday life and to other school subjects, in the upper school pupils are encouraged to elucidate general principles from their particular observations, in accordance with the underlying principles of scientific enquiry.(2)

Economics is concerned with examining the economic processes operating in society today and the main economic theories which have been put forward to explain them.

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1. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., pp.12-13.

2. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., p.14.

Physics is taught throughout the upper school stage. Pupils studying Sciences and Modern Languages, which are the courses most involving mathematics and science, devote some twelve hours a week to science subjects - including some three hours to physics. On the other hand, in the Classics, Latin and Modern Language or Economic and Social Science Departments, mathematics and science subjects occupy a considerably smaller portion of the timetable, and of this physics takes up only two hours weekly until the end of the sixth year. An attempt is made to accommodate the most recent discoveries in the context of traditional physics.(1) Students in the Science and Modern Language Departments take physics compulsorily in the Baccalaureate Examination.(2)

Chemistry is studied only in the sixth year of the Classics, Latin and Modern Languages and Economics and Social Science Departments for 2½ hours a week. In the Science and Modern Language Departments, on the other hand, it is studied for approximately two hours per week throughout the last three years of the upper school. In chemistry, the emphasis is placed upon practical work.(3)

Perhaps the most severe criticisms levelled against the European Schools have been related to their imbalanced curriculum where languages are stressed at the expense of most other subjects, and the overall demands of the Baccalaureate Examination, which places undue stress upon pupils and is successfully taken at the expense not only of balanced education, but of a complete cultural, moral and physical development.

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1. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., p.14.

2. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., p.14.

3. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, op.cit., p.14.

Before examining such criticisms in full, it is necessary to look at the European Baccalaureate Examination itself:-

> "Each pupil studies at least ten subjects for the baccalaureate, and while this leads to a good general education it denies the pupil the opportunity to concentrate on the subjects in which he is particularly interested. For example, history, geography and sciences take second place to languages. On the other hand each student leaves the school with a good knowledge of at least one foreign language".(1)
>
> In point of fact, according to Mallinson, pupils at secondary level may achieve competence in four or even five languages.(2)

Each subject in the Baccalaureate is assessed by means of written and oral examinations, based upon the syllabus for the seventh year or, in the case of philosophy, the syllabuses of the sixth and seventh years. The final mark is an aggregate based upon the following elements; all the end of term examination results in that subject reduced to a percentage - so as to take some account of the pupil's performance throughout the final year, the written section of the final examination marked out of one hundred and twenty, and the oral section of the final examination marked out of eighty.

The final certificate is awarded by the Board of Governors of the European Schools which is made up of the Education Ministers of all the Member States or their representatives, and so is recognised in all the countries of the Community for admission to higher education. Its reputation is sufficient to make it acceptable for admission to some institutions in Austria, Switzerland and the U.S.A. as well. The percentages of marks earned in each subject by the candidate are indicated on his or her certificate, which is signed by the President of the Jury of the Examining Board (made up of examiners from each of

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1. Jonathan O'Sullivan and Fiona McNamara, "The European Baccalaureate, trial or triumph?" in European School, Pedagogical Bulletin, 1953-1978, Brussels, 1978, p.249.

2. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.372.

the Member States), by at least one representative of each nationality represented on the Board of Governors, and by the Headmaster of the school to which the candidate belongs, whose seal it carries. It is this international constitution of the Board of Governors that has ensured for the Baccalaureate the unqualified recognition it has within the Community and beyond.

As already noted, all the signatories of the Rome Treaties, including those that have joined since 1957, have also signed agreements, under Article 5 of the Statute of the European School, to recognise the European Baccalaureate as acceptable in their own institutions of higher education as a qualification for entry.

Possibly the most scathing criticism of the European School in action has been afforded by a pupil, John Morton, of Brussels I.

> "This school has many faults ... it is something of a failure. Firstly, by its size. The division of our school into two should have occurred ten years ago. A school of two and a half thousand is too big, by any standards. The mere size of the school goes a long way towards explaining many of its faults, such as the enormous distance between pupils and administration ... and the general anonymity and coldness of atmosphere.
>
> The hours are too long. We have roughly 3½ hours more lesson time per week than do British schools. For the younger classes, a large proportion of this is occupied by grim and needless study periods. For the older classes it is taken up by subjects they may not want to do.
>
> At the centre of this frigid weary educational forcing house sits the "Conseil d'Education". The pupils are represented on this, by six of their number, but their effective power is practically zero. Suggestions are frequently lost in a maze of sub-committees. ... There should be greater emphasis on non-academic subjects for those whose talents lie in those directions ... In fact the school concentrates too much on the purely academic. ... This is a sign of the elitism that pervades the rationale and the organisation of the school. Once the idea of multi-lingual schools had been realised it would have been simple to extend the right to enter ... to all immigrants, and build sufficient schools to cope. But the European Schools continue as selective, conservative and essentially bourgeois".(1)

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1. John Morton, of Brussels I, "The European School", in European School, op.cit., p.246.

It is only fair at this point to remind ourselves that Brussels I is indeed the largest, and oldest but one, of all the European Schools. Thus in 1977 Brussels I had 2,713 pupils, whereas the next largest, Luxembourg, had 2,272, while the average size of all seven schools established at that time was 1,432, little more than half that size!

If this were the only criticism of this kind to be voiced it might be suspect, but in the same book Helene Vlessing, a pupil at the same sxhool with some experience of both British and Dutch schools, referred to Brussels I as a "cramming mill", even though she went on to observe that the school had well and truly prepared her for later life and expressed her conviction that "the high standards imposed at the European School match up to the standards of many universities".(1)

Similarly the observations of Jonathan O'Sullivan and Fiona McNamara about the European Baccalaureate, already quoted on p.414 above, are fully corroborated by John Morton:-

> "One of the biggest faults of all is the European Baccalaureate, the qualification we all hope to obtain. A broad general education and the avoidance of premature specialisation are one thing : ten subjects at seventh year level are another, and totally ridiculous.
>
> 'Distracting and enfeebling the mind by an unmeaning profusion of subjects' was how Cardinal Newman described this sort of curriculum. The number of subjects is by no means the only thing wrong. It should be possible for pupils to choose specific subjects other than broad groups of subjects. Specifically there should be a dramatic increase in the amount of time made available for the sciences for those who want to specialise in Science".(2)

Several of these pupil criticisms of the European Baccalaureate also appear to be confirmed by comments from the members of the teaching staff of Brussels II, Voluwé-St.-Lambert, a smaller, more recently established European School, whom one might suppose to be better equipped to pass an objective and fair judgement upon the subject.

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1. Helen Vlessing, of Brussels I, "The European School", in European School, ibid., p.259.
2. John Morton, of Brussels I, "The European School", in European School, ibid., p.246.

Mr. Alan Philips, who teaches English Language at Voluwé-St.-Lambert, observes:-

> "The children are introduced to a second language at the age of six. During the Primary Stage the language is mastered orally. In the first year of the secondary school it becomes the langue vehiculaire for several subjects, including geography and history, and is taught formally. However, one draw-back of introducing the second language so early on is that bad habits acquired at Primary Stage tend to be perpetuated, whereas the further foreign language introduced in the second year of the secondary school is frequently better mastered. In the course of their education in a European School children may acquire mastery of three, or even more foreign languages, but the great stress placed upon language skills is inevitably at the expense of their other subjects, such as science, geography, history and music. It is not uncommon for a child to have six home-works to attend to every night from a young age, which severely curtails life at home, as well as sports, hobbies, etc., at school".(1)

Mr. Frank McGurk, teacher of history at the same school, has said that:-

> "The history syllabus is very 'open' and leaves ample time and scope for innovation at the discretion of the teacher. Under the reformed syllabus (see p.410 above) history also embodies civics, and the great challenge, particularly at upper school level, is to encourage an understanding and to deepen the childrens' knowledge of the events of European history over the past four hundred years, avoiding particular nationalistic emphasis and prejudices which would cloud the issue in the traditional nationally-based syllabus. I enjoy this challenge. The methodology is, of course, of great importance since from the third year upwards the pupils are taught history, geography and social studies in the Langue vehiculaire. This, I feel, is an extremely effective method of encouraging European consciousness. By the seventh year the pupil's ability to conceptualise in English is very good, and easily the equivalent of many mother-tongue pupils who might try for "A" Levels".(2)

Clearly Frank McGurk finds the European School Curriculum very challenging and worthwhile from the perspective of his particular subject. On the other hand, Larry McAudle, who teaches Geography in

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1. Alan Philips, English Language teacher, Brussels II, Interview in June 1981.
2. Frank McGurk, History teacher, Brussels II, Interview in June 1981.

the same school, was less than happy about his own particular subject, and about the place accorded to the social science subjects in general, in the European School curriculum or in the European Baccalaureate Examinations. He was of the opinion that:-

> "... geography, as taught in European Schools, is dominated by French attitudes to the subject - very old-fashioned, mainly regional - since the systematic and quantitative approaches, and the modern stress upon fieldwork, are given no rein.
>
> The teaching of both geography and history is also very much restricted by the lack of importance accorded to these subjects, since languages, mathematics and philosophy all take precedence. The Baccalaureate does not even require written examinations in geography and history. There is an oral examination in one or the other, and a pass in the one is regarded as a pass in both".(1)

This low status accorded to geography and history was also implied in the criticisms put forward by Jonathan O'Sullivan and Fiona McNamara on p.414 above. It is also implicit in the analysis undertaken by the School's Council in the U.K. to ascertain the equivalence of the European Baccalaureate in terms of British University Entry qualifications - G.C.E. passes in five subjects of which at least two should be at "A" Level standard - to which we now turn.

In general, as already observed, the European Baccalaureate is recognised universally throughout the Community for university entry purposes. When, however, the U.K. acceded to the E.E.C. and ratified the Statute of the European School, formulated and originally signed by representatives of the "Six" in Luxembourg on the 12th April 1957, very much later in 1972-3, she was accepting as binding upon her Article 5 which states that:-

> "Holders of the European Baccalaureate ... shall ... have the same right as nationals with equivalent qualifications to seek admission to any university in the territory of the contracting parties".(2)

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1. Larry McAudle, Geography teacher, Brussels II, Interview in June 1981.
2. Statute of the European School, signed by the "Six" 12th April 1957, Article 5, paragraph 2 (b).

she also, through the Secretary of State, asked the School's Council to assess the European Baccalaureate in terms of G.C.E. passes. Clearly with so many subjects undertaken in the seventh year of the European Schools, it was not deemed necessary to establish the breadth of the curriculum compared to the minimum British requirement of five G.C.E. passes. However, the School's Council, upon investigation, decided that the holders of the Baccalaureate might be deemed, in general, to have achieved the equivalent of four "A" Level G.C.E.s, more than enough since two good "A" Levels are often sufficient for entry upon a degree course in the U.K.

In detail, the Council assessed the Baccalaureate pass through a Classics Department as equivalent to "A" Levels in Latin, Greek, English and a Modern Languages; that through a Latin and Modern Language Department as equivalent to "A" Levels in English, Latin and two Modern Languages; that through a Latin and Mathematics Department as equivalent to "A" Levels in Pure Mathematics, Physics, English and a Modern Language; and that through an Economics and Social Sciences Department as equivalent to "A" Levels in Economics, English, a Modern Language and Mathematics with Statistics. It even equated the Economics pass as an equivalent of both "O" and "A" passes in that subject. There was, significantly, no mention whatsoever of geography or history in any of the departments' equivalences, not even amongst those of the Economics and Social Science Department!(1)

These, then, are the negative criticisms which have been levelled at the European Baccalaureate as they come from pupils and teachers of European Schools, but there are also positive criticisms from the European establishment itself, and some of these are most impressive and supported by statistics. It seems that any final judgement would

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1. The European Baccalaureate; Status of the Certificate, in European School, op.cit., p.18.

need to take into account the careers of young Europeans who have passed through the schools, and this must inevitably be a task for the future. In general, one can say that a verdict rather depends upon one's educational views - whether achievement is measured quantitatively, in terms of academic successes, or qualitatively, in personal terms such as knowledge and skills acquired, but also cultural and ideological values acquired by pupils. Even the student criticisms previously referred to do not entirely neglect mention of benefits received as well as the shortcomings inherent in the system. For example:-

> "The real advantage lies in the opportunity to learn foreign languages, make use of them in and out of school, and hence reach above average proficiency... The particular set-up in European Schools has also done a lot to help pupils come to grips with the culture, history and characteristics of the different Community countries. And so a Community consciousness emerges and lingers on in after-school life ... to the advantage of the individual and society as a whole".(1)

> "Having struggled through the final school years the successful student emerges with a good education, at least one foreign language, and a good understanding of his European counterparts".(2)

As for official criticisms of the European Schools, one can hardly do better than quote the letter of Roy Jenkins, as President of the Commission, to M.H. Levarlet, representative of the Higher Council for the European Schools, dated 1st December 1977, in which he encapsulated what may be seen as the main achievements and contributions of the genre at the time.

> "Today these schools have a population of 10,000 pupils and almost 700 teachers, and their educational standards are recognised as being amongst the highest in Europe. If European Schools are, by virtue of their regulation, primarily for children of European civil servants, they are nevertheless open to other European children, and I

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1. Imve Bondar, Jochen Bitterich, Hans Peter Thoma, Varese European School, in European School, op.cit., p.242.

2. Jonathan O'Sullivan and Fiona McNamara, Brussels I, in European School, op.cit., p.249.

> have noted with satisfaction that almost a third of the school population fall into the latter category ... The pupils of a European School receive a particular double benefit. On the one hand they are educated and instructed in their own national culture, on the other hand their curriculum and environment opens up for them a truly integrated European perspective ... in microcosm, a summary of the aims of the European Community as a whole".(1)

In point of fact the European Schools have entered the 1980s with about 11,000 pupils, thanks not least to the establishment of two additional schools at Munich (1977) and at Culham in the U.K. (1978).

As for results in the European Baccalaureate:-

> "... since 1959, 2,758 young people have successfully completed their education in the European Schools, and have obtained the European Baccalaureate which will allow them entry into seats of higher education throughout the European Community".(2)

It may be estimated that by 1980 that figure had reached about 4,000. Since then, the total number of graduands has probably reached 5,000, and is likely to increase in future as new schools reach maturity.

The system puts particularly heavy pressure upon the seventh year students, but the final pass rates for Baccalaureate candidates in recent years are amazingly high. Pupils of the seven older schools already presenting candidates in the years 1976-80, obtained results in the following ranges - six students, .27%of candidates gained 90+% of possible marks; 170, 7.56%, gained 80-89%; 697, 30.99%, gained 70-79%; 1,208, 53.71%, gained 60-69% and only 168, 7.47%, gained less than 60%.(3)

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1. Roy Jenkins, President of the E.C. Commission, in a letter to Monsieur H. Levarlet, Répresentant du Conseil Superieur des Ecoles Européennes, 1-1-77, as quoted in European School, op.cit., p.20-21.

2. Marcel Decombis, Headmaster of Brussels I, "A History of the European Schools", in European School, op.cit., p.56.

3. Conference Pédagogique, News of the Schools, organised by the Council of European Schools, in Report dated 29th April 1980, p.62.

Although it is almost impossible to assess the situation, ex-pupils of the European Schools must by now be making some impact upon Europe, since the small stream of graduands has now swelled to some 550 per annum. By now, the first 2,219 who graduated before 1977,(1) will have passed through university and embarked upon adult life.

It has already been suggested that, by its very nature, the European School is an elitist institution, and as such is not a suitable model for the kind of international school which might best serve the educational needs of the average young European. It is therefore of great interest to examine a national experiment in which a state school endeavours to serve the needs of young Europeans of several nationalities living within its county catchment area, and use this 'international' intake to help broaden the outlook of its remaining fifty percent local pupils. The candidates for admission as part of the European intake must have one or both parents of European origin; have ties or associations with Europe, or vocational or ideological commitments to it, as well as being recruited within the county area. Whether entering the school under county or local terms, the children are not subject to academic standards of admission, as this is a comprehensive school serving the widest possible academic ability range. The school concerned is the Anglo-European Comprehensive School at Ingatestone in Essex, already referred to briefly on p.201 above.

Ingatestone Anglo-European School was founded in 1973 and "aims to provide" in the words of the prospectus, "within the framework of the full range of subjects associated with a typical Secondary School, a special curricular emphasis towards an awareness of and an interest in contemporary Europe, its society and its problems. The school seeks

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1. Yv Heumann, Deputy Representative of the Board of Governors of the European Schools, "Development of the European Schools", in European School, op.cit., p.74.

to encourage pupils of all abilities and from all backgrounds to reach out for their full potential in intellectual, creative and social terms and prepare them to take their places as active citizens of their country, of Europe and of the wider world".(1) It was established in the buildings of an earlier secondary modern school dating from the late 50s and early 60s. Since that time it has undergone two major building programmes as numbers have been increased, in 1976 and 1979, to provide it with much-needed additional facilities - language laboratories, six science laboratories, gymnasium and sports-hall, library and resource centres, engineering workshops, specialist rooms, private study rooms and common rooms, over and above the basic class-rooms. The latest acquisition has been a Computer Studies Centre.

The number of pupils in the school has now been stabilised for several years at about 1,100. In January 1983 the total stood at 1,111, which included 166 sixth form students, a figure very similar to that in 1980. Similarly the annual intake is pegged at 180. The local intake is drawn from a catchment area comprising the parishes of Ingatestone, Margaretting and Mountnessing. The European element of the intake, as already indicated, is recruited from families all over Essex with some European association or interest, and indeed, such is the demand that very many with perfectly valid claims have to be turned away.

The curriculum is structured to include a broad foundation course in the first three years, courses leading up to public examinations in the fourth and fifth years, and finally advanced specialist courses in the sixth-form for a further two to three years for the more academically motivated students.

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1. Prospectus of Ingatestone Anglo-European School, July 1983.

In the first three years all pupils follow a balanced curriculum which includes English, Mathematics, general science, humanities - including history, geography and religious education, French, German - for the more able two-thirds of the form from second year onwards, music, art, Russian - for the best linguists only from the third year onwards, subjects from the Home Economics/Technical Studies areas, computer appreciation - in the third year, and physical education. Because of the ability range involved, mathematics classes are divided into "sets" - selected by diagnostic testing - from the second term of the first year onwards, and from the end of the second year pupils are also put into "sets" for French, science and the Humanities.

For the fourth and fifth years almost all pupils follow a two year course preparing them for G.C.E./C.S.E. Examinations. Their courses now involve a core curriculum - English, mathematics, European studies plus religious education, physical education, careers guidance and personal development, all of which are on a non-examination basis. In addition they must select one subject from each of the five groups below:-

Group A: French, German, or citizenship (for linguistically less able).

Group B: Physics, biology, chemistry, general science, or computer studies.

Group C: Physics, biology, economics, history, geography, technical drawing, art or typing.

Group D: German, history, geography, technical drawing, food and nutrition, office practice, or computer studies.

Group E: Art, music, drama, typing, food and nutrition, needlework, technology, wood-work, metal-work, Russian and chemistry.

All but the least able are expected to study at least one foreign language, one science, and one subject from a range of arts and crafts. Exceptional students, with a particular vocational need, may be allowed to undertake three languages or three sciences. The decisions with regard to these subject choices are undertaken with elaborate consultations and discussions between children, parents and teachers.

Throughout the five years a European emphasis is encouraged in all the established school subjects, but particularly in the humanities and some sciences, and in addition there is European Studies, which focusses upon contemporary Europe and its problems, as well as opportunities for study visits and exchanges with established partner schools in France and Germany, and study visits to the U.S.S.R.

In the Sixth Form the students are mostly engaged in a two-year academic programme in preparation for entry to university, colleges of higher or further education or the professions. Many prepare for "A" Level G.C.E.s or alternatively they are encouraged to sit or re-sit needed "O" Levels at the end of the first year. But the school also actively encourages as many as possible to opt for the International Baccalaureate Examination, which involves students in studying six subjects to provide breadth, but three of these at a higher grade, roughly approximating to "A" Level standard, to ensure depth. The character of this International Baccalaureate, which seems to offer a more realistic answer to the needs of young Europeans than the European Baccalaureate, will be examined subsequently.

The international motivation of the school is reflected at Sixth form level not only through the subjects studied, but also in established student-exchange links - including termly visits to French and German schools available to language specialists, and month-long visits to an American High School.(1)

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1. The Prospectus of Ingatestone Anglo-European School, July 1983.

Before giving some consideration to the character of the International Baccalaureate, it is relevant to ascertain just how successful, in academic terms, Ingatestone, a fully comprehensive school operating in the less demanding educational traditions of the U.K., has proved to be. There were 190 fifth form pupils in the school during the academic year 1982-3, and since, as a policy, no fourth formers are entered for public examinations, the results below related solely to them. Some 23 subjects were entered at C.S.E. or "O" Level G.C.E., and discounting successful double entries, the following viable grades - C.S.E. Grade I or G.C.E. "O" Level Grade C or above - were obtained in the June 1983 Examinations. Some 72 pupils gained seven passes or above, 35 got between four and six passes, and another 43 only one to three passes. On the basis of all 190 candidates, on average each obtained 4.36 passes.

In the Upper Sixth Form there were 76 pupils in the academic year 1982-3, some 16 subjects were entered for at "A" Level, and the following pass grades, A - E, were obtained out of 146 subject entries;- 16 "A" Grades, 21 "B" Grades, 15 "C" Grades, 17 "D" Grades, and 41 "E" Grades, making a total of 110 subject passes. Two pupils obtained 4 passes each, three pupils 3 passes, nineteen pupils 2 passes, and sixteen pupils 1 pass, to make up these 110 passes.

At the International Baccalaureate Examinations in 1983 there were sixteen candidates. In order to pass, and gain a diploma, three subjects at higher level and three at subsidiary level had to be passed, and an aggregate of twenty four points gained on them. Of the sixteen candidates who sat, twelve secured diplomas, and of these nine obtained 30 to 35 points, and none of those who passed obtained fewer than 26 points.(1)

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1. Ingatestone Anglo-European School, Public Examination Results June 1983.

It is now relevant to examine the International Baccalaureate and to make some comparisons between it and its European counterpart, just as we have made some comparisons between the European Schools and their Ingatestone counterpart.

The International Baccalaureate Office (I.B.O.) was established in Geneva in 1971 to meet the needs of students in existing international schools, often privately-run, throughout Western Europe. The trust that administers the I.B. receives financial support from West Germany, Holland and the U.K., and it directed by a governing body made up of eminent Western European educationalists including Alec Peterson, former Director of the Oxford University Department of Educational Studies. The examination, which entailed five years of preparation before its first introduction, subsequently underwent a further five years of pilot trials. It is designed to provide for easy movement of students between countries and between national and international schools. It is as much opposed to the premature overspecialisation which characterises the "A" Level G.C.E.s in the U.K., as it is to the study of too many subjects at too great a depth, which alike characterises the French Baccalaureate, the German Abitur and the European Baccalaureate modelled upon them, and has aroused the criticism of staff and pupils alike in the European Schools, as already indicated. In contrast, the International Baccalaureate seeks to provide a broad curriculum with a manageable but worthwhile element of specialisation.

In addition to the I.B.O. in Geneva, the organisation also has regional offices in London, Paris, New York and Southampton, and representatives in Adelaide, Buenos Aires, and Manila. The I.B.O. also has consultative status with U.N.E.S.C.O.

The I.B. Programme is a two year pre-university course leading either to a full I.B. Diploma or to separate certificates. Every I.B.

Student is expected to be proficient in language, mathematics, a science subject, as well as being familiar with aesthetic and moral values. Under the general scheme the I.B. Diploma is awarded for satisfactory performance in six subjects - one from each of the following six groups:-

To show how this general scheme of the I.B.(1) is implemented in practice, in just one of its one hundred and forty-eight or more afiliated schools, details of the subjects offered at Ingatestone within the scheme are indicated alongside the subject groupings approved by the I.B.O. in brackets.(2)

1. Language A - Usually the student's first language, study to include world literature from at least two continents and two language areas in translation. (Ingatestone candidates usually offer English in this group).
2. Language B - a second modern language requiring less depth and breadth of understanding, or else a second language A, such as a Belgian, Welshman or Breton might wish to offer. (Ingatestone candidates offer French, German or Russian).
3. Study of man - one of the following; history, geography, economics, philosophy, psychology, social anthropology or business studies. (Ingatestone candidates may offer history, geography or economics).
4. Experimental science - one of the following; biology, chemistry, applied chemistry, physics, physical science, scientific studies. (Ingatestone candidates offer biology, chemistry or physics).
5. Mathematics.

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1. I.B.O., The International Baccalaureate; a pre-university programme and examination with international perspectives and recognition, London, 1980, p.1.

2. Ingatestone Form VI Prospectus, p.4.

6. One of the following - art, music, a Classical language, a second language B, an additional option from 3 or 4, further mathematics, a special syllabus developed by the School. (Ingatestone candidates offer art, music or an additional subject from one of the other five groups. In the case of a student bent upon medical training, three sciences may, exceptionally, be studied with I.B. permission, under the terms of groups 3, 4 and 6).

Of these six subjects, three must be studied and examined at subsidiary and three at higher level. In addition all candidates must:-

- follow an interdisciplinary course in the Theory of Knowledge,
- submit an extended essay (a research project) in one of the six subjects studied, and
- undertake a creative, aesthetic, sporting or social activity consistently throughout the two years of the diploma course (designated as C.A.S.S.).

The I.B. papers are marked by an international Board of Chief Examiners who administer the examination, set the papers and moderate the grades conferred by the two hundred assistant examiners drawn from various countries and language areas.(1) At both Higher and Subsidiary Levels answers in each subject are marked according to a seven point scale, seven being the maximum points conferred in a subject. In addition, up to two bonus points may be allowed for an excellent extended essay, and one bonus point for a good result of the Theory of Knowledge assessment. A minimum of 24 points overall secures an I.B. Diploma.

The International Baccalaureate has achieved widespread acclaim, and is currently prepared for in 148 participating schools in 36 countries in every continent of the world. This includes all the Community countries with the exception of Eire and Luxembourg.

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1. I.B.O. op.cit., p.2.

Furthermore the I.B. Diploma is acceptable for higher education entry in 450 universities in forty-three countries, including all Community countries other than Luxembourg. It is taught in schools in European countries outside the Community such as Norway, Sweden, Austria, Switzerland and Spain, and is furthermore accepted for admission purposes not only in Austria and Switzerland, where the European Baccalaureate is also acceptable, but in such European countries as Norway, Sweden, Finland, Spain, Malta, Hungary, Poland, Yugoslavia and Turkey.(1)

This is not so much to disparage the European Baccalaureate as to demonstrate the greater potential for Europe, and for the wider world, of the International Baccalaureate. In point of fact both of these internationally-acceptable examinations represents a significant contribution to the mobility of students within Europe. Even so, as will be demonstrated subsequently in Chapter 14, it is the moves towards equivalence of professional as well as academic qualifications within the Community which are likely, in the long-term, to have a greater impact - since the majority of European students will continue to attend their respective state schools, - schools in which the International Baccalaureate is not prepared for and in many cases will not be appropriate to their academic level, and in which the European Baccalaureate can never be made available to them.

Before moving on from the subject of international schools in Europe, it is relevant to consider the schools of the United World Colleges or U.W.C. In one sense they are every bit as elitist as the European Schools. In another real sense, however, they are relevant since they not only prepare students for the less-exclusive International Baccalaureate, but also seek to nurture social concern and an international perspective in their students, rather than concentrating upon academic excellence and a narrowly conceived European consciousness

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1. I.B.O. op.cit., p.3.

as the European Schools appear to do. In this wider view of education for international citizenship they offer an additional dimension which deserves to be emulated by those seeking a model for the kind of international school designed to serve the needs of the average young European.

The United World Colleges, already previously referred to on p.204 above, also merit consideration because they seek to promote the kind of international outlook which is a pre-requisite of European consciousness. R.W.G. Mackay, in his "Towards a United States of Europe", devoted an entire chapter to the argument that the world is not ready for federal government, but that European unity was an attainable ideal for this generation.

> "We are left with Western Europe as an area in which such a regional federation might be created, but World Federalism ... (is) premature".(1)

Many world federalists such as those behind the United World Colleges would concede that European federalism is, indeed, transitional to their greater ideal and it is in this spirit that U.W.C. have explored several proposals for further colleges in Europe.

The U.W.C. is dedicated to the education of young people of various races and creeds together so that they can learn to live and co-operate with one another, acquire mutual understanding and empathy, and learn to serve the needs, not only of their local community, but also those of the wider world community which it is their ultimate purpose to unite. The organisation hopes to establish a chain of international schools throughout the world - all inspired by a common educational philosophy, and co-ordinated by an independent international council.

Each of the United World Colleges has an international staff and student body, representing a wide range of races, and religious and

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1. R.W.G. Mackay, "Towards a United States of Europe", Hutchinson, 1961, Chapter 4, and especially p.89.

political allegiances. Students are admitted to the colleges on two year pre-university scholarshops, competitively awarded upon ability, personal qualities, and dedication to internationalism. It is intended that, after the scholarship term is completed, each student should return to take up a place in higher education in his or her own country. The U.W.C. has accordingly given its support to the development of the International Baccalaureate, the qualification to which Ingatestone is also aligned. Finally, each U.W. College places considerable emphasis upon community activities in order to develop in the students a sense of service to the community to which they belong.

The International Council of the U.W.C. is made up of representatives of some 75 countries, to which co-ordination is provided by an International Board advised by the International Council and served by a Secretariat based in London.(1)

The oldest of the U.W. Colleges is Atlantic College, founded in 1962 at St. Donat's Castle in Gwent on the South Wales coast of the U.K. There are other colleges in Singapore and in British Columbia, Canada, as well as two associated schools in Swaziland and Tanzania. More relevant to this study into European integration is the fact that negotiations are well advanced with the regional government of Friuli-Venezia Guilia in Italy,(2) where it is planned to found a United World College at Sistiana, near Trieste, on the Adriatic Coast.(3)

The United World College of the Atlantic comprises modernised but historical buildings centred upon an Elizabethan courtyard within the imposing framework of a splendid medieval castle, plus a whole range of up-to-date facilities housed in two modern extensions. In the older

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1. U.W.C. Pamphlet, United World Colleges, 1980, p.1.
2. U.W.C. Pamphlet, United World Colleges, 1980, p.6.
3. Betty Ree, "A Stronghold of Learning", in"Spectrum", the Journal of the Rio Tinto Zinc Corporation, October 1976, p.1.

buildings the dining hall assembly hall and reference library are situated. There is a theatre and lecture hall housed in a restored tythe barn, and art rooms and music rooms in the former stables and coach-house. In the modern extensions there are dormitories, science laboratories, language and mathematics centres, and extensive workshops. The entire 61 Ha(150 acre) estate is carved out of a well-wooded hill-side which slopes down to the Bristol Channel, with ample space for an extensive swimming pool out od doors, as well as a smaller one indoors, and for a 20 Ha small holding which is farmed by the students as part of their environmental studies.

In this beautiful school environment, 350 students between the ages of 16-19 attend the college, seconded on scholarships from any of some sixty different countries - not only countries in Western Europe, North and South America and South East Asia, but from Communist bloc countries such as those of Eastern Europe, the U.S.S.R. and China. In English terms the college would be described as a Sixth-form College.

In addition to academic work the school provides scope for various kinds of service to the community, which also accords closely with the kind of curriculum required by the I.B.O. The main community service maintained by the college is the provision, by the students, of a co-ordinated beach, cliff and inshore rescue service along a 20 mile stretch of coast centres upon St. Donat's Head, where the school is situated. The social service is designed to work for disabled, sick, elderly or disadvantaged people in the locality, and in addition some students serve as auxiliary helpers in the Casualty Department of the Cardiff Royal Infirmary.

The College houses a local Arts Centre, and provides home and staffing by 25 students for an Extra-mural Department, designed to serve the varied needs of all kinds of young under-privileged people from nearby

urban centres of deprivation. There is also a China-Japan Resource Centre housed at the College which provides services for teachers or students not only from Gwent but further afield. Finally there are several environmental activities carried on by the students, including estate work on the 20 Ha small holding already mentioned, which provides students with experience in stock and crop management, marine research facilities, manned by a student team experienced in sub-aqua survey who undertake research on behalf of the Institute of Marine Environmental Research, and college service, which involves students making contributions to the management and maintenance of the College estates, including the fabric of the school itself.

It is difficult to assess what success a school may have, judgements must inevitably be subjective. Academically, the school's achievements are extremely high, with nearly a 90% overall diploma pass-rate in 1979.(1) But this is not all the U.W.C. undertakes with its students, as appears to be the case with European Schools. In all fairness it is not a just comparison to judge the extra-mural activities of day schools with boarding schools like the United World Colleges, but certainly Atlantic College has a wonderful record, not only undertaking work of real value to the community, but leaving an abiding impression upon its students. The rescue services, for example, were involved in 12 emergency calls involving the Inshore lifeboats in 1979, and as many as thirty-four sea rescues were undertaken by the beach rescue teams in 1978. The Social Services Unit has provided a whole range of services including visitation of old people's homes, a mental hospital, blind school, physically-handicapped hostel, mentally-handicapped girls' school, etc. It has operated play-schemes, entertainment for the handicapped, and provisions for decorating slum houses. Social Service Students have undertaken placements with professional social workers and probation officers. Student Voluntary workers have shared in the work of Cheshire

1. U.W.C. News-sheet, February 1980, p.6.

Homes, Hospices, Probation Offices and in the slums. Students have helped bring a new dimension into the lives of blind children by teaching them to canoe, and these are only a fraction of the activities in which Atlantic College students have been involved. The abiding impression the college leaves upon its past students is perhaps borne out by the world-wide projects some of them undertake. Thus in 1979 some undertook the establishment and maintenance of an Adult Community Centre in India, others went out to teach in the U.W.C. Associate School in Swaziland. There have also been student exchanges with Belfast, Uruguay and India.

It is clear that this is a very privileged kind of school, in the sense that only students of real merit are likely to be admitted, although the fact that sponsors have included Iron Curtain governments, industrial firms, even trades unions seems to belie the accusation of elitism or social privilege in the worst sense.

While Ingatestone holds out a more universally-feasible model for the European educationalists to aspire to, the United World Colleges also point to ways in which wider perspectives could and ought to be brought into the lives of ordinary young Europeans, possibly by extending the opportunity for Sixth form boarding experience for those deemed likely to derive benefit from it.

As regards institutions of higher education, the first European organisation of this kind to be established was the College of Europe in Bruges, set up in 1949, in the immediate aftermath of World War Two. A brief resumé of the events leading up to its foundation, its basic philosophy and aims as adumbrated by its founder, have already been indicated. To the first Rector, M. Hendrick Brugmans, Dutch historian and political writer, must go the credit for helping establish the college's constitution and programme of studies, and investing it with

an extremely high reputation throughout Europe. However, as so often happens, during his last years in office Brugmans became intractable in his policies and resisted demands for much needed reforms. In particular, there were protests from students who felt that the courses were being pitched at too low a level, not sufficiently advanced for the specialist amongst them, yet at the same time leaving insufficient scope for an interdisciplinary approach. They also felt that too much value was placed upon securing prestigious outside speakers and insufficient care in ensuring the high quality of the small full-time staff.(1)

The new Rector, Jenzy Lukasjewski, who succeeded Brugmans in 1972, was faced with difficult tasks of internal reform and the setting in motion of a forward-looking educational programme to meet the needs of a Europe in transition. At the time the European parliament was beginning to make serious plans for the establishment of a European University Institute in Florence, and it was clear that Bruges could no longer hope to sustain its monopoly position as Europe's only higher education establishment for much longer, but must develop a distinctive and intrinsically valuable contribution to the European cause.

In addition, if the College of Europe was to prosper, it had to prove itself a democratic institution in keeping with the new spirit of student autonomy which had been making itself felt since the late sixties, as well as a premier educational establishment. The new Rector set about extending the scope of the Academic Council to include not only professors and elected representatives of the assistant teaching staff, but also of students and former students. As for the achievement of appropriately higher academic standards, as befitting a post-graduate establishment, this could only be achieved if the student body was enlarged sufficiently to make it economic to appoint a larger, better

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.368.

qualified and full-time academic staff. It would then be possible to reduce the college's dependence upon the visits of external lecturers, who, it has already been observed, had often been felt by past students to have been chosen more for their eminence and past achievements than for their ability to speak relevantly, and had accordingly been resented. Accordingly, it was proposed to enlarge the student body, a move which would have been radically against the policies of Lukazewski's predecessor:-

> "When I was appointed in 1972, we were still feeling the aftermath of the 1968 "earthquake". My predecessor, Professor Henri Brugmans, believed that the college should be a small family of some 50 students. But my view is that 150 is still small - so I tripled the number of students admitted".(1)

At that time the college was also restricted to seventy students by the accommodation then available in an eighteenth century hotel. The new Rector purchased additional buildings in 1973, and also abandoned the hitherto rigidly adhered to principle that all students must reside in the college. Accordingly, the student enrolment rose to 131 in December 1980, including students from some twenty one countries, and some ten students from outside Europe - Australia, India, Guatemala, Israel and the U.S.A. Amongst the European students one hundred and four were from countries in the Community or awaiting acceptance into the Community, and the remaining seventeen were from other European countries.

All entrants to the college must be graduates, and are usually required to be qualified in their chosen academic specialisms at the college, although graduates in related disciplines may be considered. Most students are supported by grants from their home country, and only a few study at their own expense. The college operates with two working languages - English and French - and the lecturers deliver

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1. Jerzy Lukazewski, in "College with a finishing touch", interview reported in the Times Higher Educational Supplement, dated 28th February 1981.

their courses in the language of their choice, while examinations and working groups are conducted in the language chosen by the student. In any case, a good working knowledge of both languages is regarded as a prerequisite for admission to the college.

The Programme of Study are made up of two main components, namely:- Specialised European Studies - in which the student can opt for the most appropriate emphasis to his or her academic interests - be it administration, economics, or law. In this subject, which will involve at least 180 hours of tuition, students undertake obligatory courses, most of which are to be followed up by examinations after one term, and another two non-obligatory courses.

In the administrative field of study obligatory courses include:- "Administration of Major Community Policies", "The Institutions and Decision-making Processes in the European Community" and Economic Aspects of European Integration". In the economic field of study the obligatory courses include:- "Political Economy of European Integration", "International Economics", and "The Economic Methods applicable to the problems of European Integration". Finally in the Law field of study obligatory courses include:- "The four fundamental liberties of the Common Market - free movement of goods, labour, services and capital", "The Institutions of the European Community" and the "Sources of Community Law".

The other component of the Programmes of Study is the Pluridisciplinary European Studies, from which each student may choose three courses - involving a total of ninety hours of tuition. These multidisciplinary studies can be chosen in such a way as to deepen the student's insight into his chosen major area of study, or to "widen their vision and understanding of European problems from other fields".(1)

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1. College of Europe, Prospectus, 1984-5, p.9.

Subjects available in 1984-5 included "E.E.C. Relations with developing countries", "United States West European Relations in the 70s and 80s", "Europe and the European idea", "East-west Relations and Defence Problems in Europe", and "The Ecological Problem and European Civilisation". These courses are "accompanied by lectures given by personalities from the realms of politics, diplomacy, the European Communities".(1) The Programme of Studies is therefore very intensive, requiring that students should complete all their courses in a single academic year, and take an active share in the working groups, written and oral, not only in their chosen major field but also in the multidisciplinary part of the programme.

Furthermore, they must sit and pass at least nine of their examinations, either at the end of the first term or at the end of the course. If students complete all these requirements satisfactorily they may be awarded the "Certificate of Advanced European Studies", and if in addition they carry out research and write an approved thesis, they are awarded a Masters' Degree in Advanced European Studies.

By virtue of the fact that the College provides post-graduate education for students of more than twenty nations, mainly European, and has within its staff representatives of some ten nations, it fully merits its name of College of Europe. It is furthermore, sited in the heartland of Europe, and each of its specialisms is oriented towards European affairs, problems and needs.

In the words of the Rector, Jenzy Lukasjewski, written in 1979:-

> "A l'heure actuelle, il y a parmi les 1,725 Anciens du Collège des ministres dans plusiers gouvernements européens, beaucoup de parlementaires, de dirigeants de partis politiques et de syndicats, des centaines de fonctionnaires des institutions européenes et internationales, des centaines de diplomates ... Il ne fait pas de doute qu'ils representent ensemble l'une des forces motrices de mouvement vers l'union de l'Europe".(2)

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1. Council of Europe, Prospectus for 1984-5, pp.30-31.
2. Jenzy Lukasjewski, Rector of the College of Europe, "Former des Européens pour bâtir l'Europe", Cadmos, Geneva, Hiver 1979, p.53.

> (At this very moment there are, from amongst the 1,725 old students of the College, ministers in many European governments, a large number of parliamentarians, stalwarts of political parties and agencies, some holding appointments in European and International institutions, some holding diplomatic appointments ... there is no doubt that they represent, collectively , one of the driving forces in the movement towards the unification of Europe").

As has already been intimated, the late 60s and early 70s saw the development of Community plans for the establishment of a university of Europe, which finally materialised on the 5th October 1976. The purposes for which it was established, the basic structure and character of the institute, have already been outlined and it remains to examine the nature of the work being undertaken there.

The University Institute is funded by all the Community countries with the exception of Greece, at levels roughly in proportion to their means. Income from all sources in 1984-5 was 9,909,800,000 Italian lire, or approximately 7½ Million European Units of Account.

The Institute is essentially a post-graduate establishment preparing students by a programme of teaching seminars and research projects. Much of the work is interdisciplinary, and directed by professors who help provide a supportive framework for the research students who join their teams. To obtain the ultimate award of the Institute - the Degree of Doctorate of the European Research Institute, research students must live and study in Florence for at least two years, produce a doctoral thesis through participation in one of the established research projects, and be able to defend their own original research before an examining commission. All the research topics proposed must not only have a European dimension, but, to be accepted, must fit into "one of the research projects in hand" in one or other of the four departments of the Institute.

The History and Civilisation Department is particularly interested in research in two fundamental areas; comparative economic and social

history of early modern and modern Europe; and the history of international relations and the comparative developments of European political and social systems, with special attention to the history of integration and co-operation in Europe after the Second World War. On-going programmes in 1984-5 include work and family in pre-industrial Europe; Europe in the Napoleonic Period, 1800-1815; The Rise and expansion of industrial commodity production for distant markets in pre-industrial Europe; The early phase of multi-national enterprise in Germany, France and Italy, 1900-1929; European emigration to the United States of America and Canada from the end of the eighteenth century to the present; Anti-Americanism in Europe; and the Origins of the European Community, challenge and response in Western Europe, 1946-1950.

The Department of Economics is concerned mainly with research into the "theoretical and institutional foundations of economic policy-making in the European Mixed Economies". This concern has been prompted "by the decreasing ability of governments, which became apparent in the 1970s, to pursue domestic and external economic policy objectives successfully".(1) This involves a critical analysis of the economic theories which are evoked, a comparative study of current economic practices and the interaction of these at international level, and the application and development of economic models relevant to these theories and practices. Current research programmes are concentrated upon three main areas:-

"The foundations of macro-economic policy" where researchers are seeking to construct and test macro-economic models relevant to the European situation; "Domestic and International management of structural change" where a team is seeking to explore the effective reconciliation of public and social goals with economic efficiency and adjustment to

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1. European University Institute, Prospectus; Academic Year 1984-5, p.23.

market demands through worker participation in some form, within the context of Western European industry; and "International financial interdependence in economy policy-making" where the main concern is to examine problems involving the co-ordination of financial policies in the E.E.C.

In the Law Department, the seminars and research projects seek to take advantage of the international expertise of the teaching staff and students to view the research topics in a "comparative and Community perspective". The main research project, which has been in progress for several years and is nearing its completion in 1984-5, is concerned with methods, tools and potential for European legal integration in the light of the American federal experience. The concern of this research has been to analyse the tools and methods for integration used in both continents in order to assess their effectiveness, and to explore the problems which confront individuals and groups seeking justice in the transitional period towards integration, and possible federal or transnational solutions to these. For the analysis of the "tools and methods for integration" in which legal, socio-political and economic aspects of federalism have been considered, German, Swiss, Canadian and American experience have been studied in depth, to provide a basis for comparative analysis. For the second part, concerned with legal access problems during the transition period, particularly vulnerable situations have been selected for consideration.

Other research problems which are currently being examined in the department are related to the other legal project concerned with "Law and Economic policy, alternatives to de-legislation" in which alternatives are being sought to pressures being brought for de-legalisation in situations in which the law is being called upon to maintain the difficult social and economic balance involved in such structures as the Welfare State and the Western Mixed Economy, and where

the government is obliged to hold a tenuous economic balance to regulate private enterprise and keep in line with its own social and economic policies, and the law is failing to achieve what is required of it. Some of these research problems include "legal aspects of the activities of multinational companies", "Project safety regulations", "Trademark Law as a means of consumer protection", "Comparative Legal aspects of manpower adjustment policies", "State responsibilities for State-owned companies", etc.

Finally, the Department of Political and Social Sciences has, in recent years, been particularly concerned with research into the "Future of Party Government", which developed out of an earlier project on "Recent Changes in Western European Party systems". In particular the research has been concerned with party manifestos, party platforms and their equivalents in some twenty countries, and efforts to assess exactly "How Party Government works". For this purpose a theory of government has been developed, and is being tested with data from twenty one countries.

Other on-going interests in the department include the "Demise of authoritarian rule and the prospects for democracy in Southern Europe and Latin America", "The politics of industrial and communication policies in Western Europe". Finally, the Department organises a Summer School in Comparative European Politics mainly directed towards young specialists in political science. The 1984 Summer School, for example, was concerned with national choice theory and its applications to the behaviour of parties and governments.

In 1983-4 there were sixty first year, forty second year and thirty five third year post-graduate students working on research in the European University Institute, mainly recruited from the nine contracted states of the Community. Most seminars are conducted in either English or French. Candidates for admission need to have not only

secured degrees which make them eligible to research for a doctorate, and to have some research experience, but also, in addition, they must have the ability to read and write competently in at least two of the Community's official languages.

Each year research projects in each department tend to shift in their emphasis and a particular project is usually completed in the course of the passage through the institute of the particular team which instigated it. The finished project gives rise to the publication by the institute of books(1) which have developed out of the collective research of all the team members, while the work done by each member of the research team provides the basis of his or her doctoral thesis. In this way, the true European University tradition, academic researchers acquire their skills, and a whole new canon of knowledge, technique and philosophical thought relevant to the understanding of Europe and the process of European integration is being forged and built up.

All of the international schools and colleges described here are contributing a great deal towards European consciousness, and in the case of the colleges, not only are they passing on the skills, knowledge and philosophical ideals needed by the rising generation of European leaders, but they are also building up new insights into all the problems confronting Europe in its transition from a group of nation states to a federation, which will benefit those coming after.

So far this chapter has surveyed the range of international schools and colleges already established, and has attempted to assess what each institution, or type of institution, has contributed, or is contributing, to the European cause. Before it is possible to suggest the line future developments ought to take, it is necessary to compare the existing

1. Under its own imprint since 1978, but now, in addition, a multilingual series is being published by Walter de Gruyter Publishing Co., Berlin and New York, to cover work in all the academic fields of the institute.

institutions, to find out if they afford any kind of model upon which future institutions might be structured.

In general it will be seen, from what has been written, that almost all the above institutions are to some degree elitist, or if this is too strong an indictment, at least privileged or meritocratic. This can be demonstrated from several aspects of their operation, candidate selection, qualifications worked towards, and expectations of past students.

As regards selection, for example, the European Schools are predominantly designed to serve the needs of the children of Eurocrats, themselves a very select body. Just how "open" the remaining third of places(1) is, maybe, open to question, and one would suspect that the bulk of such unconditional places is in those schools where the primary source of recruitment is insufficient to sustain a full-sized economic school, and that there are comparatively few such places in other schools, such as those in Brussels.

The Ingatestone Anglo-European School claims to be comprehensive, but even here, by its very nature, 50% of places are reserved for children whose parents have European connections, and these 50% of places are very much over-subscribed. One might assume, that a kind of "selection" must result, based possibly on the European orientation of the pupil, but also upon some academic considerations. In short, Ingatestone, though free from the social and academic selection criteria of the European Schools, is likely to be "Selective" and therefore privileged. Apart from such unconscious bias, however, the Ingatestone Anglo-European School must be closer to a possible "universal" model.

The United World Colleges recruit their candidates at the beginning of what in the U.K. would be termed the Sixth Form, or more generally

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1. Roy Jenkins, op.cit., as quoted previously on p.421.

in Europe the Upper Cycle of Secondary Education. This makes the Colleges meritocratic, in so far that all pupils have successfully completed their compulsory phase of secondary education. Candidates have, however, been selected by national agencies of all kinds, ranging from L.E.A.s, industrial firms, and banks to trades unions, and it is difficult to believe that none of these agencies, whether consciously or unconsciously, are guilty of seeking to preserve an elite of some kind. Furthermore, if some sociologists are to be believed,(1) the upper social classes, for a variety of reasons, tend to be better academic performers at school than the working classes, and so, on this basis alone, the U.W.C. must tend to favour a privileged group in almost all the countries who contribute to it.

As for the College of Europe and the European University Institute in Florence, as post-graduate institutions both must be subject to similar strictures. This is not to argue that there is anything intrinsically wrong with selecting for such privileged minority institutions, but only, that they cannot then be viewed as providing appropriate models for the education of all young Europeans - and yet it is this totality of Europeans that must learn to live in the United Europe and to acquire a European perspective.

With regards to the formal qualifications which the students aspire to, it has already been observed that the European Baccalaureate is very academic, and that therefore success in it must inevitably remain the preserve of a small proportion of Europeans. Although the I.B. is less demanding, it is revealing that at Ingatestone, where the I.B. was prepared for in something approaching a comprehensive situation, only twelve candidates out of sixteen entered secured the coveted diploma in 1979, and these out of a total Upper Sixth form of seventy-six!

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1. Tony Bilton, Kevin Bonnett et al., Introductory Sociology, Macmillan Press, 1981, p.396.

This is not to imply that the remaining sixty Upper Sixth formers were neglected or that they did not receive a European experience during their sojourn at the school. The vast majority secured A level passes and all had been taught European Studies and benefited from visits and exchanges abroad.

It is probably significant that some ninety percent of the candidates who entered from the more privileged Atlantic College in 1979 secured I.B. Diplomas. In short, the International Baccalaureate is also a highly exclusive qualification quite beyond the ability or opportunity of most Europeans, but, as already argued, this is not to disparage the excellence of the Atlantic College education, with its training in social awareness and international concern. If the European, but also the International Baccalaureates are not appropriate to serve the needs of the majority of young Europeans, at least there are other aspects of the education given there which are more relevant to our enquiry. It need hardly be observed that the higher diplomas and degrees awarded by the College of Europe and the European University Institute are similarly not really appropriate to the needs of the majority.

Ingatestone, by its attempt to serve the academic needs of all ability levels, and to give them all some European experience, clearly offers the most generally applicable model for European educators to follow - and it would surely be practical for far more young Europeans reaching the upper cycle of secondary education to undergo the experience of a "Sixth form college" with social service and an international experience and perspective in the forefront of their activities there. In fact, if agricultural, technical, and vocational colleges of all kinds were similarly oriented, young people of a very wide ability range would benefit from this valuable aspect of the United World Colleges. Failing this, as was suggested in an earlier chapter,

an organisation transitional between V.S.C. and C.S.V., and undertaken by all young people capable of benefiting from it as a form of national service, might serve a similar purpose.

Finally, regarding the student expectations at the various institutions considered, the intention of the European Schools and United World Colleges is that all their pupils should aspire to university places in their home countries, and it is further their wish to help in the development of future leaders who have been motivated by social concern and internationalist aspirations, or more specifically European aspirations in the case of the former. It is the aim of the College of Europe, "Former des Européens", or more specifically, to train "potential European administrators, lawyers and diplomats".(1) Similarly, the European University Institute is concerned with producing not only practitioners of law, economics and politics with a European orientation, but also academic leaders to guide the future thinking of Europeans. All, therefore, with the exception of Ingatestone, seeks to mould the future through its leaders. Ingatestone has the wider objective of moulding future Europeans.

The need for the future must surely be to rationalise this situation. While it is clearly essential for there to be institutions which can prepare Europe's future leaders, there is also the whole of European society to consider. It is possible that the Ingatestone School type, perhaps with Sixth-form College provisions in association with it, ought to be found all over Europe. As regards higher education, it is clear that there is a gap to be filled between Secondary and higher education of the post-graduate kind. While there are Degrees in European Studies, these are only chosen by a minority, and what is needed is for all degree courses to include a European element, including study of a

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1. Jerzy Lukazewski, in "College with a finishing touch", interview reported in the Times Higher Educational Supplement, dated 28th February 1981.

second language, so as to plug this gap. Ultimately, however, even this cannot be sufficient, since it is necessary to reach the generality of Europeans, and to this end every kind of technical and vocational course, from the academic to the wholly practical, ought to be invested with a European Dimension. Students on all kinds of courses and in all fields and at all levels would then be able to experience visits and exchanges involving some of their counterparts in other parts of Europe. This would be the ultimate and rational development in international education towards a united Europe in a rapidly shrinking world.

CHAPTER XIII: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 7. PROMOTION OF GREATER ACADEMIC MOBILITY WITHIN EUROPE: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

It has been one of the central principles of the European Community, as laid down under the Rome Treaties, that member countries should all work towards the complete mobility of labour, capital, goods and services between them - since such mobility is an essential prerequisite if ever the various national economies are to become integrated into a single Europe. The Community has long since recognised that it is more effective to "Smooth the path" towards European integration rather than attempt to force through constitutional changes in the teeth of nationalist opposition, that is to say, that a functionalist approach is slower, but more effective, than the more direct federalist one. Formal education is therefore seen as a means of "priming the pump" - which is able to induce changes in society by initiating new modes of thought, by developing new forms and levels of knowledge and technology, and by diseminating these throughout society. It therefore follows that any attempt to improve labour mobility throughout Europe is best to be initiated through the medium of formal education - not only in the sense that researchers and teachers at all levels should be enabled to move and practice their skills freely within Europe, but also in the sense that education, particularly, through the expounding of ideas and the development of practices which are conducive to mobility, is able to make a unique contribution to the process of integration directly.

Specific ways in which formal education is able to further academic mobility in its own ranks and through this, labour mobility generally, include the following. To begin with there are efforts to remove legal, social and economic obstacles which make it difficult or impossible for teachers, researchers or students to move from one area of the Community to another and practice their skills there. Also the promotion of

effective language teaching is necessary to the end that teachers, researchers and students achieve at least bi-lingualism, at best multi-lingualism. Another important way would be the provision of means by which all teachers, researchers and students can be fully informed about educational opportunities open to them, and the means by which obstacles to mobility are best overcome. Finally there should be moves to ensure that, where possible, equivalence between academic and professional qualifications is established; and in addition, or where this is not practical, to provide for a harmonisation of courses and qualifications between comparable educational establishments or for the setting up of the machinery for regular liaison between these institutions. Using this kind of machinery individual cases amongst the teachers, students or researchers can be adjudicated upon promptly and effectively in matters relating to their previous academic or professional achievements or experience, possible course exemptions, the length and contents of courses, standards achieved, etc., whereas such cases are frequently far too complex to be decided upon en masse and in advance.

Only through the achievement of academic mobility can teachers at all levels be enabled to participate in professional service anywhere in the Community - which in turn will make it possible for state education to enjoy the benefits of international staffing and acquire a character closer to that of international education, while the generality of teachers will for the first time have the opportunity to acquire a more internationalist outlook. Only then, too, can teachers, researchers and students, not only those in higher education but preferably within the much broader spectrum of further and adult education, benefit from the opportunity to participate in teaching, research or study elsewhere in Europe, so that the principle of "Universitas Universitarum" is extended, socially as well as territorially, making possible a genuinely

democratic commonwealth of learning throughout Europe.

Before attempting to decide how far academic mobility has already become a reality in Europe, and what ought to be done in future to extend it, it is necessary to examine the stated objectives, the findings and the practical achievements of the main international organisations to date.

In the Action Programme in the Field of Education put forward by the Council and Ministers of Education at their meeting of 9th February 1976, in Part IV, one objective is laid down as the "promotion of closer relations between educational systems in Europe". Thus, in paragraph five, "in order to give a European dimension to the experience of teachers and pupils in primary and secondary schools in the Community", Member States were required to promote and organise "development of the national information and advisory services necessary to promote the mobility and interchange of pupils and teachers within the Community". In paragraph six the Community was to study the "extension of the practice of recognising periods of study abroad", and "the possibility of enabling teachers to practice their profession for a time in a Community country other than their own". In paragraph seven, in order to "assist pupils from the Member States moving from one country to another within the Community to make the transition from one educational system to another", it was proposed to study the "idea ... of introducing a standard record card at Community level", a project which has since been abandoned. Further, in the part of the action programme concerned with the promotion of "co-operation in the field of higher education", it was proposed that action should be taken at Community level "to encourage short-study visits for specific purposes for teaching and administrative staff and for researchers. In paragraph fourteen, in order to "promote free movement and mobility of teaching staff, students and researchers", the following action was proposed at

Community level - "arrangement of a discussion involving representatives of higher education institutions on the question of developing a common policy on the admission of students from other member states to higher education institutions, drawing up of a report in order to establish whether and to what extent the national schemes for scholarships, studentships and research and teaching fellowships should be extended to increase mobility in the Community and, where appropriate, the submission of suitable proposals", and the "drawing up of proposals designed to eliminate obstacles to the mobility of students and of university teaching and research staff". In paragraph fifteen the competent authorities in Member States were to be invited "when calculating seniority, to take into account periods of service in teaching or research spent in other Member States, and to examine ways and means of enabling periods of teaching or research spent in other Member States to be aggregated for the purposes of calculating pension entitlements". Authorities were also invited in paragraph sixteen, "to increase the possibilities for the academic recognition of diplomas, and study periods and studies carried out". The following action was proposed at Community level:-

- "the drawing up of a report analysing the current situation with regard to the academic recognition of diplomas and containing proposals for the improvement of the situation and, if necessary, for the development of a network of agreements,
- the organisation of consultations between those responsible for education policy and co-operation between higher education institutions to facilitate the recognition of periods of study and studies carried out".(1)

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1. Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, Part IV, p.3, paragraphs 5-7, and p.4, paragraphs 13-16.

As regards the mobility of pupils in schools, paragraph five, this has been interpreted as a need to promote short-term visits and exchanges. As for the recommendation that there should be greater mobility for teachers, the Education Committee further recommended that the initiatives of member states should be reinforced at Community level to provide short-study visits for teachers. For the time being, the more far-reaching recommendation of the 1976 programme, in paragraph six, was rejected because the Committee regarded the barriers to the free movement of teachers as too great, all apart from the "current surplus of teachers in many countries", and so "The Committee ... decided to focus attention on short-term teacher mobility". However, the Commission has not rejected out of hand the future possibility of enabling teachers to practise their profession for a time in another Community country.(1)

As for the idea of a Standard Record Card to assist pupils moving between Member States, as recommended in paragraph seven, the Commission organised a meeting of national experts to examine whether and how the standard record card devised by the Council of Europe in 1976 might be introduced in the Member States of the Community in September 1977. Subsequently, this meeting recommended to the Education Committee that a three year trial for the card should be instituted in the member states, and that an expert evaluator should be appointed to assess the results of the trial. The evaluator outlined his proposals for the evaluation of this record card in January 1979, but it was proposed, in view of delays in the implementation of the cards in the various member states, that the evaluation phase should be extended.

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council on 27th June 1980, 8137/80, Brussels, 7th July 1980, pp.11-13.

Unfortunately the idea was finally abandoned as impractical, because "following detailed discussions, both at Community and Council of Europe level ... it became clear that less than a quarter of the countries concerned were prepared to use the document ...".(1)

With regard to the other group of recommendations for "co-operation in the field of higher education" in the programme of 1976, the main recommendation relating to mobility in paragraph thirteen was that requiring Community action towards "the encouragement of short-study visits for specific purposes for teaching and administrative staff and researchers". A scheme of grants for such visits was indeed launched in 1977, with the aim of providing participants "with the chance of studying over a period of 4-6 weeks specific aspects of the organisation and administration of the different higher education systems and institutions within the Community ... to increase the long-term possibilities for collaboration between institutions of higher education in the different member states".(2)

A total of two hundred and twelve grants was awarded during the two academic years 1979-80, and 1980-81. Special emphasis in this scheme has been given to those responsible for advising students on course choices and/or career opportunities, including those with special responsibility for the reception and guidance of foreign students, or the recognition and validation of academic qualifications and periods of study spent abroad; and those involved in the training of staff in higher education concerned with any of these aspects".(3)

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1. David Coyne, of the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education of the Commission of the European Communities, in reply to an enquiry dated 29th October 1984.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976 to the Council, etc., 8137/80, 7th July 1980, p.18.

3. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education "European Co-operation on Education", 12th Session, Lisbon, 3-4th June 1981, pp.56-57.

In pursuit of the policy of promoting "free movement and mobility of teaching staff, students and researchers"(1) by the "development of a common policy on the admission of students from other member states to higher education institutions", by inducements such as scholarships, studentships and fellowships, and by elimination of obstacles to mobility, the following developments have taken place:-

"The Commission has ... undertaken a study, in co-operation with the Council of Europe, on the mobility problems of students, teachers and research workers in Europe".(2) It has also asked the European Cultural Foundation to carry out a study on student mobility. A study by Professor Rouche on the post-graduate training of scientists is already completed,(3) and together, these two studies will form a basis upon which to draw up concrete proposals to make mobility for teachers, research workers and students a reality.(4)

On the 22nd September 1978 the Commission published two communications to the Council and Ministers of Education for consideration by them at their meeting of 27th November 1978, concerned with admission of students from other member states into higher education institutions,(5) and the setting up of a European Community scholarship for students.(6) In the former a common policy was laid down for the admission of students from other Community countries into higher education establishments based upon the following principles;-

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1. Council and Ministers of Education, etc., op.cit., Part IV, p.4. paragraph 14.
2. Report of Committee for Higher Education and Research, "Mobility of post-graduate students, academic teachers and research workers, C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977.
3. M. Rouch, E. Gouthals, "The Post-graduate training of Scientists in the European Community, Commission of the E.C., EUR 4832, (1972).
4. Commission of the E.C., "Towards a European Education Policy", Brussels, February 1977, p.7.
5. Commission to Council, "Admission to Institutions of Higher Education of Students from other Member States", COM(78)468 Final, Brussels, 22nd September 1978.
6. Commission to Council, "A European Community Scholarship Scheme for Students", COM(78) 469 Final, Brussels, 22nd September 1978.

- that national policies should reflect the objective of the education action programme to increase the intra-Community mobility of students and eliminate obstacles to movement,
- that such policies should be based on Member States' recognition of their interdependence and mutual responsibilities in the context of admission of students from other Community countries, and
- that individuals should be admitted on a basis not less favourable than the host country's own students.(1)

This last principle was, however, made subject to a proviso that where a country has special problems in providing places in particular disciplines, for example, medicine, they "could derogate from the application of (that) principle ... until these special problems can be resolved".(2)

The following were the main measures recommended to the competent authorities of the member states by the Education Committee.

As regards numerical limitations on admission the criterion laid down was that "a reasonable number of places is to be made available for students from other Community countries". The term "reasonable" was to be interpreted ... "in the light of a continuing review of existing levels of mobility".

As regards admission criteria, other than linguistic ability, the main one stipulated was "possession by applicants of a qualification sufficient for them to be eligible for admission to a higher education institution in their home state, supplemented where necessary by any additional requirements imposed equally upon home students".

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1. Commission to Council, "Admission to institutions of Higher Education of Students from other Member States", COM(78) 468 Final Brussels, 22nd September 1978, p.2.
2. General Report of Education Committee on progress made with implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976, etc., 8137/807 July 1980, p.21.

In the matter of the fees the principle established was for "the fees for students from other Community countries to be not higher than those applicable to home students". Finally, as regards linguistic requirements, the main principle to be adopted should be that of "linguisitic competence - related to the needs of the particular course of study concerned. Evidence ... to be provided ... before commencement of the course".(1)

In the second of the Commission's Communications to the Council - "A European Community Scholarships scheme for students", devised in response to the recommendation, in the action programme of the 9th February 1976 concerning "scholarships, studentships and ... fellowships" intended to provide inducements to students to study elsewhere in the Community, it was proposed to establish a scholarship scheme to cater for "students in any disciplines other than modern languages" - for which separate provisions were to be made - which would provide six hundred and fifty scholarships awarded annually, and financed from the Community budget each year from 1981-2. To be elegible, the students must wish to undertake study in another member state as an integral part of a course of study in their own country for which they were already eligible, and must not already be in receipt of another grant to cover the same course. Each of the major member states were to be allocated 125 such scholarships, Belgium and the Netherlands each 50, Denmark and Eire each 20, and Luxembourg 10. Each scholarship would be intended to cover all aspects of maintenance only, it being assumed that fees would be waived by the institution concerned.(2)

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1. Commission to Council, "Admission to institutions of Higher Education of Students from other Member States", COM(78) 468 Final Brussels, 22nd September 1978, pp.3-5.

2. Commission to Council, "A European Community Scholarship Scheme for Students", COM(78) 469 Final, Brussels, 22nd September 1978, pp.2-3.

The measures undertaken by the Community so far described have been directed towards facilitating the admission of students from other countries, by reform of national policies and procedures adopted by higher education institutions which regulate such admissions. Although such reforms have been instrumental in sweeping away all kinds of obstacles in the institutions, they have not really been directed towards solving the personal problems which may confront the student from another country. These include ignorance or apprehension about the kind of courses available, admission requirements and procedures, financial problems, and difficulties relating to travel, accommodation and social security. These can constitute at least as great an obstacle to student mobility as the institutional constraints themselves.

It was with this in mind that the first edition of the Handbook for Students in Higher Education in the European Community came out in 1977, containing "Information for each member state on the organisation of higher education, admission and registration practices, language requirements, financial assistance and scholarships".(1) It has already been up-dated in several subsequent editions.

It has also been recognised that there is some need for a similar publication to answer the needs of teachers or researchers in higher education wishing to teach or research abroad, and, in addition, the Commission, in collaboration with the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe, have produced a supplementary volume which covers the C.C.C. member countries not included in the Community Handbook.(2)

As for the recommendation, in Part IV, paragraph fifteen of the action programme of 1976, that "member states, when calculating seniority" should "take into account periods of service in teaching or research spent

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1. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, op.cit., p.58.

2. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, op.cit., p.58.

in other member states, and ... examine ways and means of enabling periods of teaching or research spent in other member states to be aggregated for the purpose of calculating pension entitlement", "an analysis has been made of the extent to which periods of teaching and research in other member states affect the calculation of seniority and pension entitlements", and it is further noted that "the education Committee will examine these problems".(1)

Finally, with regard to paragraph sixteen of the 1976 resolution, concerning "possibilities for the academic recognition of diplomas and study periods and studies carried out", the following two actions were resolved upon - that a report was to be drawn up to analyse the current situation and to propose improvements in this situation, and the organisation of consultations "between those responsible ... to facilitate recognition of periods of study, and studies carried out". The required report was indeed forthcoming in 1979.(2) Additionally, the Commission in 1981 made recommendations to the Council and Ministers of Education which marked the beginnings of implementation of the second part of the resolution for the organisation of consultations over the matter of courses and terms of study.(3)

Edwin Cox, in the forward to his report, listed the objectives of the study as "to survey and record the existing and planned unilateral, bilateral and multilateral agreements of the Member States concerning academic recognition of diplomas, "to assess their value for students' mobility, to consider ... a community solution ... by an extension of

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1. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the action programme of 9th February 1976, etc., 7th July 1980, p.26.

2. Edwin H. Cox, "Academic recognition of Diplomas in the E.C., present state and prospects", Commission of the E.C., Brussels, August 1977.

3. Commission to Council, "Academic recognition of diplomas and of periods study", COM(81) 186 Final, Brussels, 29th April 1981.

bilateral agreements to a Community-wide network, (and by) a comprehensive solution at Community level".(1)

Edwin Cox's conclusions regarding the "direct effect of agreements", which had already been established, were not very encouraging:-

> "Amongst those who assisted with this study on the nomination of Member governments, there was a surprising degree of agreement that, in practical terms, the existence of European conventions and the existence of the Community itself, had had no great effect on student mobility. ... amongst the reasons were;
> (a) the existence of a positive policy towards mobility which pre-dated ... the E.C.,
> (b) a reluctance, on the part of students, for various reasons, to study abroad,
> (c) the existence of intervening factors in the minds of governments or students, or both, which were stronger determinants ... than enabling clauses, ... bilateral agreements, or the ... Community idea,
> (d) in some countries, a lack of consciousness of the opportunities ... provided, or indeed of ... the agreements,
> (e) marked differences in the mode and length of higher education courses which militate against movement ...
> At the time when European unity ... faces great strain ... there is some degree of reticence apparent in making swift progress towards the entirely free movement of students within the Community".(2)

Cox concludes that the way forward does not lie in devising systems of "equivalence" but more in "increasing incentives and removing non-academic barriers to create a situation approximating to the free academic market".(3) He looks to the Community and national governments to play an enabling role - lifting barriers to mobility, showing positive discrimination "in favour of relations with other Community member states".(4)

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1. Edwin H. Cox, op.cit., Forward, p.9.
2. Edwin H. Cox, ibid., The Direct effect of Agreements, in Chapter IV, p.41.
3. Edwin H. Cox, ibid., Chapter VI, A Policy for Increased Mobility, p.46.
4. Edwin H. Cox, ibid., Chapter VI, A Policy for Increased Mobility, p.49

Cox suggests the following primary steps ... "ending of financial discrimination against foreign students"; "in countries where freedom of universities to order the curriculum is confined within narrow limits, some relaxation ... to allow negotiation ... between institutions"; "restrictions on the numbers of students allowed ... should take into account desirability of improving the flow of students within Community countries"; and finally, "opportunities offered by the agreement should be made well and widely known to potential beneficiaries". Cox argues that "Given these preconditions", universities are best qualified to take the initiative in the promotion of student mobility, because "they ... inevitably have the most intimate knowledge of the constraints which hinder ... the opportunities which are necessary or appealing for them. It is also that intimate knowledge and purposeful action which in the medium-term will be likely to ensure that the desire for increased mobility is met".(1)

The Commission's communication to the Council and Ministers of Education on "Academic Recognition of Diplomas and of Periods of Study" in 1981, which was, as already observed, in response to Part IV, paragraph sixteen of the 1976 action programme in the field of education, argued that it was"opportune to launch a co-ordinated set of measures at Community level to provide the basis for questions of academic recognition to be fully appreciated by the interested parties in the various member states. The reasons given were in order to "remove anomalies, misunderstandings, and injustices resulting from widespread lack of authoritative information on equivalence matters, to obviate any confusion resulting from lack of any Community-wide system or network of agreements on the academic equivalence and comparability of ... qualifications awarded by the various ... authorities, to enable higher education institutions to be better informed of the development of new

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1. Edwin H. Cox, op.cit., Chapter VI, A Policy for Increased Mobility, pp.49-51.

types of degree courses in other member states, and to eliminate a major obstacle impeding student mobility in the Community".(1)

This "co-ordinated set of measures", the Commission argued, was needed to build on what had already been achieved, and to carry the process to its conclusion. The achievements identified by the Commission included several already examined in this chapter and elsewhere, including:-

1. The report, published by the Commission, and compiled by Edwin H. Cox.(2)
2. The scheme of Community grants to support joint programmes of study between institutions of Higher Education in the different member states, conducted in collaboration with the European Cultural Foundation.(3)
3. The Education Information Network in the European Community, which became operational in September 1980, and which operates through four main priorities, one of which is "Policies and conditions of admission to students to higher education".(4) The Commission accordingly recommended "the establishment of a network of National Academic Equivalance Information Units in the Member States", the functions of which would be "to collect and transfer authoritative information on academic qualifications, they could have no validation function as such, nor duplicate any national degree-awarding machinery". There would also be "a central co-ordinating activity for the operation and exploitation of the Community-wide network within the Commission's services, within which the Central Unit of

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1. Commission to Council, "Academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study", COM(81) 186, Final, Brussels, 29th April 1981.pp.5-6.
2. Edwin H. Cox, op.cit., first referred to on p.460 above.
3. U.K. Centre for European Education, 'Euroednews' No.2. June 1890. pp.8-9.
4. Eurydice Information Pamphlet, op.cit., pp.4-5.

Eurydice would be closely associated so as to ensure maximum use of the channelling and dissemination systems developed under its auspices". There would be bi-ennial meetings of the Heads of the National Units organised by the Commission to discuss trends, improvements to the network, problems etc., There would also be an annual meeting between Heads of the National Units and representatives of the Higher Education institutions of the Member States, to discuss problems, exchange ideas and information, and to "advise the Commission with regard to future needs which could not be met through the network". The network would be able to store and review data on degree courses in each member state, and utilise not only Eurydice but also the multi-lingual thesaurus - Eudised - to extend its effectiveness.(1) Finally,

4. The Commission recommended the publication of a handbook of information on equivalence agreements, etc., every three years, the extension of the existing Community Grants Scheme for the development of joint programmes of study between higher education establishments, and wider publicity given to this programme in order to encourage a fuller participation in it on the part of the higher education institutions.(2)

The Council of Europe has also been concerned with the problem of academic mobility, as its report on Special Project Mobility (S.P.M.), which was set up under the auspices of the Committee for Higher Education and Research, shows.(3)

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1. Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 12th Session, op.cit., pp.48, 66.

2. Commission to Council, "Academic recognition of diplomas and of periods of study", COM(81) 186 Final, Brussels, 29th April 1981, pp.7-10.

3. Committee for Higher Education and Research, "Mobility of Postgraduate Students, academic teachers and research workers", C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1977.

This report is based upon research undertaken by thirteen European countries including six of the Community countries - West Germany, France, the U.K., Italy, the Netherlands and Belgium, as well as Austria, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Spain and Turkey, all currently outside it. The categories of academic considered in this report include postgraduates - in this report called alumni - university teachers and research workers, or, as referred to elsewhere in this report - researchers. The kind of mobility considered is reciprocal mobility for those persons seeking to work in another country of Europe.

The most relevant parts of this report, for the purposes of this study, include Part II - Recommendations for the encouragement of mobility of alumni, academic teachers and research workers, and Part III - Conditions for mobility, and these are considered below.

The particular conditions for mobility singled out by the report were the provision of information, creation of academic and administrative conditions conducive to mobility, the kindly reception of foreigners, social security arrangements, resolving of language barriers, and of financial constraints upon mobility.

As regards provision of information to alumni, teachers or researchers contemplating service abroad, the report distinguishes between two kinds of information. There is information for guidance usually sought before any decision is made - relating to choice of country, institution or department, kind of work or study available, financial conditions, administrative formalities involved. This kind of information, usually from regional or national sources, is often inadequently compiled and difficult to obtain.

Secondly, there is information on settling in, concerned with the details likely to be required after the initial choice of institution has been made, and including details of subjects taught, research interests represented, working conditions and accommodation available.

This is usually available from the institution concerned, and although handicapped by lack of money, the institutions see to it that this need is adequately served. The report singles out France as having too many national institutions providing information, whereas West Germany has attempted to overcome its federal diversity by establishing one, particularly effective, information agency - Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst or D.A.A.D.

The report argues that there ought to be a supra-national, European level, Information organisation, possibly covering the membership of the C.C.C. and intended, not to replace national centres, but to co-ordinate them, by providing means for making qualified choices based upon balanced information. Each country ought to keep full and standardised statistics of alumni, teachers, and researchers in and out of its borders, and distinguish between those taking up work elsewhere in Europe and elsewhere outside of it. In addition, the report continues, there is need for national information centres to provide guidance to foreign visitors, and each institution or group of institutions ought to operate information and reception bureaux for the benefit of foreign alumni, teachers or researchers joining them.

As regards the creation of academic and administrative conditions conducive to mobility, the report observed that existing European conventions regulating equivalence and the recognition of periods of study have been complied with, but have done very little to promote mobility. The institutions themselves appear to be satisfied with the present level of incentives, but students are often disconcerted by the long preliminary courses - such as those in the Netherlands, and are also apprehensive that studies undertaken abroad will not be recognised at home.

There are two regulations in particular, according to the report, which ought to be reformed.

The practice of refusing to accept a national with a foreign qualification - for example, a British citizen with an Abitur - yet accepting a foreign student with the same qualification is palpably unjust. So too, the custom of promoting former students to university posts is to be discouraged, since if this practice mitigates against national mobility, how much more must it inhibit European mobility. The university graduates of today should be encouraged to work abroad for a while before returning to their home country, so as to enrich their experience and academic prospects. To help in the assessment of a particular student's qualifications, it would be useful if each student were provided with full and detailed account of studies undertaken and results gained, couched in a standardised terminology. Similarly a standardised credit system for under-graduates' studies would make direct comparison much more easy.

Agreements ought to be concluded between universities to promote study and information trips, and help in the development of personal relationships. Periods spent abroad for teaching or research ought to count towards rights of seniority, promotion and superannuation. Teachers or research workers under permanent contract ought to be entitled to have their jobs reserved for them after a fixed term of years abroad, or at least be guaranteed a post of equivalent status. The sabbatical year ought to be made standard practice throughout the membership of the C.C.C., and should be available to all senior staff, subject only to their undertaking approved work.

As for administrative obstacles, alumni have only one serious problem, that of securing recognition for their work abroad by academic institutions or potential employers on their return. For teachers and researchers, on the other hand, there are obstacles at every turn - since they have to sever professional commitments when they go abroad, and there are problems related to departure, working abroad and settling in

again on their return to be faced. In general, the institutions themselves are not aware that their administrative arrangements pose any threat to mobility, indeed, according to a survey conducted by the Council of Europe(1) in 1975, the West German authorities "stated that there are no legal, administrative or financial obstacles to prevent teachers, university students and research workers from going abroad or coming to Germany", whereas a French representative, perhaps more perceptively, argued that "procedures were in advance of university practices, which led him to think that the action to be taken was psychological or sociological rather than administrative". He argued further that "we should not encourage mobility as much, we should promote the creation of an international university community and then we shall get mobility as well".

In the meantime, however, the report argues that the procedures confronting the would be student or teacher going abroad are tedious, slow and needlessly complicated, requiring effort and goodwill on both sides to cut through the red tape involved.

Military Service requirements, for example, in the Netherlands, may be an obstacle to mobility, and it would be desirable if a period of work or research abroad could be regarded as worthy of remission of such service, in whole or at least in part. The delay of salaries payable to researchers and teachers taking up an appointment in another country, on the grounds of administrative dislocations, is yet another example of the kind of set-back which should not be allowed to occur.

As regards the reception of foreigners in another country this requires a really "humane and sympathetic" reception service - one that is not dependent upon the goodwill of a professor or director of research. The report does not dispute the need for quota limits to be imposed on admissions of foreign students, particularly for universities or

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1. C.C.C./ESR/PSM (75) Misc. 2.

faculties where demand exceeds the places available, but it suggests that alumni destined to join research departments ought to be left outside the quotas imposed upon under-graduate admissions.

The report also highlights the occasional cases where an academic has been required to relinquish his nationality in order to qualify for recognition, seniority, academic prerogatives and promotion rights in the university to which he has been appointed, and argues that "being recognised as a full member of the academic community does not mean that the foreign colleague should have to relinquish his nationality if he himself does not wish to do so".(1) To liberalise this situation a convention ought to be concluded between the C.C.C. Member Countries. Finally the work permit has already ceased to be a requirement between the countries of the European Community and a similar situation ought to appertain between the countries belonging to the Council of Europe.

Concerning social security for alumni, teachers and researchers as well as their dependents while abroad, at present provisions vary considerably from one country to another. Thus, for example, whereas the U.K. treats all its residents in the same way, regardless of nationality, Turkey does not even ensure that there are social security provisions for its nationals working abroad, and Norway only does so provided that they pay the contributions themselves. At least there should be a rationalisation of the provisions and the visitor should be in full possession of the facts at the outset. Ideally, there should be a "single multilateral convention among all the countries that are party to the Cultural Convention".(2) The following are the principles put forward as the basis for such a convention by those involved with the report.

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1. Committee for Higher Education and Research, "Mobility of post-graduate students, academic teachers and research workers", C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977, p.33.

2. Committee for Higher Education and Research, ibid., p.35.

The authority which pays a visitor should also pay social security for the visitor and dependents, but a visitor might be required to take out supplementary insurance to cover the proportion of cost which, in the host country, is normally borne by the beneficiary. An unpaid visitor might reasonably be required to take out insurance cover at his own cost as a condition of admission by an institution.

As regards language problems, ideally, every European higher education student should have mastery of at least one, preferably two, European languages other than his or her own. As a general principle, in most European countries teaching at universities is conducted in the national language of that country, and foreign students, especially alumni, are required to be competent in it. The report recommends that universities should not only permit, but encourage, the use of other European languages for lectures, conferences, colloquies and research, provided there are sufficient students capable of using the language. Authorities ought to engage foreign assistants to direct practical work in their mother tongue. Such practices would help to motivate students to become competent in other languages, and this could actually enhance their career prospects. Ideally, universities ought to be more flexible in their use of several working languages, all students should receive a compulsory supplementary language course whatever their disciplinary interests, and those seeking an academic career ought to be required to master at least one foreign language.

Finally, financial constraints upon students, teachers and researchers seeking to go to another country ought to be relaxed, and indeed, inducements ought to be paid to encourage mobility. In particular, researchers ought to be freed from restraints, such as the conditions imposed upon the use of scholarships and grants which prevent their use abroad. Organisations making travel grants, scholarships and fellowship awards ought to be better co-ordinated at the national level,

and in particular effort should be made to encourage visits to less-favoured countries - in particular those with minority languages.

To reduce pressures upon university authorities to give preference to nationals in making appointments to teaching or research vacancies, governments ought to pay special grants exclusively available for the maintenance of and payment of foreign visitors, and which cannot be used for any other purpose. Nationals abroad ought to receive special help with the pursuit and publication of their work.

Every effort should be made to remove injustices such as teachers and researchers being subjected to "double taxation" by their home and host countries, or being obliged to wait several months for their salary to be assessed when taking up a salaried post in another country. The problem of double taxation should be resolved by a panel of C.C.C. experts, and meanwhile people should be warned of the dangers involved in working abroad.

Within the countries with which this study is primarily concerned there are some differences in policy and practice with regard to teachers, students and researchers coming in from abroad, or going abroad to teach, study or research, which need to be examined.

The U.K. places no restrictions upon the number of Europeans, or for that matter, foreign students generally, seeking admission to her institutions of higher education, but in practice not only are places highly competitive - especially in popular subject areas or in prestigious institutions - but also there are discriminatory tuition fees payable by all overseas students, although it is only fair to note that the discrimination is directed to non-resident persons rather than non-nationals per se, since once three years' residence has been completed, the domestic rate is due.

Minimum entry qualifications throughout higher education are five G.C.E. passes, of which two must be at Advanced level, but admission is

nevertheless subject to availability of places, and not rated, as in some European countries, as an entitlement. Any qualification deemed acceptable to the universities of another Community country are acceptable in the U.K., for instance, the German Abitur, French Baccalaureate or Dutch Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs. Mature students, those twenty-three years of age or more, may only need to show that they have suitable experience. The International and European Baccalaureate Examinations are also recognised by most institutions as valid for university entry.

From a linguistic point of view - a "good knowledge of English" is all that is looked for, and this may be met by a qualification, by an entry proficiency test, or simply by providing evidence of a satisfactory command of English.

For would-be candidates to research places, a good first degree of a European university and proficiency in English are of course essential, but in addition, places are very competitive, so that a candidate may also require a strong recommendation from his or her previous university in addition.

In 1975-76 there were only 2,247 students from all the other Community countries studying in the U.K.(1)

For British post-graduate students seeking to study abroad the situation is not particularly good, either. Provided the student can obtain an adequate grant from the host institution then there is no real problem, but the Department of Education and Science explicitly states that "additional grants will not be paid to meet expenses arising from visits abroad".(2) In a similar way the Social Science Research Council

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1. Commission of European Community, op.cit., COM(78) 468 Final, Brussels, 22nd September 1978, p.12.

2. D.E.S., "Grants to Students for Postgraduate Study in the Humanities - State Bursaries", as quoted in Committee for Higher Education and Research, op.cit., C.C.C., Strasbourg, 1977, p.89.

states that "S.S.R.C. studentships are not tenable overseas but if a student is registered for a U.K. Higher Degree he may be permitted to spend part of his training overseas".(1) The Science Research Council, in contrast, explicitly encourages its students to undertake post-graduate research abroad "particularly in Europe. It is therefore prepared to consider application in suitable circumstances from heads of department and research schools in the U.K."(2) Provided the student has their support, approved fees are paid, cost of living allowances are made where required, and travelling expenses are also covered for a return journey each year. Finally, fieldwork and conference expenses are also paid.

Because the British tuition fees constitute a deterrent to European under-graduates, and because there are no tuition fees payable by British students in France or West Germany, it is significant to note that there are practically twice as many British students studying in European universities as there are European students studying in the U.K., and that of these more than half go to French and West German universities - so in 1974-5 1,705 went to France, and 1,034 to West Germany.(3)

The only obstacle, legally, to a European teacher seeking a post in a British higher education establishment is the need to possess a work permit, valid for 12 months in the first instance, but renewable if the applicant is in approved employment thereafter. Thus in 1974-5 there were 528 European teachers from S.P.M. countries - West Germany, France,

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1. S.S.R.C., "Postgraduate Studentships in the Social Sciences", as quoted in Committee for Higher Education and Research", loc.cit., C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977.

2. Science Research Council, "S.R.C. Studentships and Fellowships", as quoted in Committee for Higher Education and Research, loc.cit., C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977.

3. Commission of E.C., op.cit., COM(78) 468 Final, Brussels, 22nd September 1978, p.12.

Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Spain and Turkey - teaching in the U.K.(1)

The Netherlands, being a small country with relatively small higher education resources in relation to its comparatively large population, cannot accept many foreign students or teachers. In any case, it is essential for them to study the Dutch language before they can seek a place there, which may prove an obstacle in itself. Yet another deterrent to foreign students is the fact that Dutch degree courses are of such long duration, five years or more, and the almost total absence of post-graduate studies. Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education in the Netherlands does not restrict the admission of foreign students to most subject areas, and indeed Community students are given a degree of preference over other foreign students. Acceptance is on the same terms as home students, subject to suitable entry qualifications and the availability of places at the particular institution applied for. The only exceptions to this are in subjects where places are in short supply and demand high - and in such cases, under the "Numerus fixus" system, a quota is applied and then admission for foreign students is very limited. In 1977 the subjects involved included medicine, dentistry, veterinary science, biology, pharmacy, law and physical education. Even in respect of these limited quotas, under 1612/18 regulations, Community applicants receive some preference, particularly those holding a Dutch school-leaving examination or with parents who have been resident in the Netherlands for a considerable time.

For all higher education courses a good knowledge of Dutch is indispensible, and students are recommended to come to the Netherlands in the year preceeding admission to study the language. Fees payable by foreign students, including Community students, are the same as those paid by Dutch students. The Dutch government makes a contributory grant

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1. Committee for Higher Education and Research, op.cit., p.88.

to the fees of E.C. candidates whose parents work in the Netherlands, have applied for Dutch citizenship, or have lived in the Netherlands for five consecutive years.

In 1976-7, 693 students from Community countries attended higher education establishments in the Netherlands, and of these 299 were from West Germany, 148 from Belgium, 113 from the U.K. and 70 from France. On the other hand, as many as 2,500 Dutch go to higher education places elsewhere in the Community in a given year - mainly in West Germany where 1,327 went in 1975-6; Belgium, where 774 went in 1975-6; France, where 269 went in 1974-5; and the U.K., where 174 went in 1975-6. Clearly, the main attractions are for countries on the borders of the Netherlands with whom there are some bi-lingual associations, and the absence of tuition fees in the case of West Germany and France.

As regards post-graduate students, there are no close parallels between Dutch higher education and that of other European countries. There are a number of reasons for the paucity of demand - the fact that Dutch is a minority language, limited availability of grants, the great stress placed upon under-graduate studies in Dutch universities, and the fact that Dutch degree courses are so long, as much as six years or more. Even more serious a deterrent is the fact that admission to post-graduate work is dependent upon ministerial consent, which may take many months to be granted, which necessitates a very early application.

As for university teachers, there are very few in Dutch higher education institutions from other European countries, because most vacancies are filled domestically. There are notable exceptions to this - for instance, there are some fifty N.U.F.F.I.L. courses of International Education which are taught in English, French or Spanish, Leyden University has an academic chair reserved for an eminent foreign professor on an annual basis, the Eindhoven University of Technology has fourteen foreign teachers - three at a senior level, Twente University of

Technology a further fourteen, four at senior level, and finally the Free University of Amsterdam twenty-one of whom six are at a higher level. The report suggests that the main deterrent is probably the need for mastery of the Dutch language.(1)

However, the reason given in the same report to explain the very few Dutch university teachers interested in teaching or researching abroad - namely "too involved in Dutch university life"(2) is less than convincing, since in almost all other provinces of life people are very internationalist in outlook.

Lack of research activity in Dutch university departments, where present trends are for "giving priority to teaching rather than research" is a real disincentive, so that there is less interest in going abroad to engage in work which will not serve to enhance the teacher's reputation or prospects in Holland. There are, however, no official impediments to a teacher seeking leave of absence and, according to the same report, no difficulties in teachers who have been abroad finding a vacant post on their return. Enquiries made amongst teachers in the Netherlands revealed that none of them was aware of anyone amongst their colleagues or past students who had gone to another European country to teach, study or research, nor were any of them acquainted with any plans to improve this situation in future.

As to the situation in West Germany, for the majority of courses in higher education no restrictions are imposed upon the admission of foreign students. However, in instances of disciplines subject to numerus clausus terms (quotas) the number of foreign students, including those from Community countries, is strictly regulated. For instance, some 8% of places on some courses in short supply are reserved for

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1. Committee for Higher Education and Research, op.cit., C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977. p.67.

2. Committee for Higher Education and Research, loc. cit., C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977.

foreign applicants. But in the case of medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine, pharmacy and psychology where places are so much more contested, only 6% of places are reserved for foreign students. In general, some 12-13% of students admitted to places in higher education in areas of study not subject to numerus clausus restrictions, are foreign.

The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education of the various Länder of the West German Federal Republic have laid down the following criteria to govern the admission of candidates from other European states into German higher education establishments:-

First, they are required to hold a school-leaving examination certificate that would entitle them to admission to higher education in their home country, and at a level and in subjects appropriate to their proposed course.

Secondly, in the case of subjects regulated by a numerus clausus restraint foreign students are selected on the basis of the best qualified, but with some regard given to those who have studied in a German school abroad, been awarded a German scholarship for the assistance of specially-gifted students, have previously attended a Studien Kolleg - a special institute set up to prepare adults for university, have come from a country with no facilities to study that particular subject, or been a member of a German-speaking minority elsewhere. In some cases reciprocal agreements between Germany and some other European countries have to be honoured, and also, in some subjects, places have been granted subject to the completion of specially-proscribed periods of practical study.

Thirdly, all higher education establishments impose a language test to ensure that the student is capable of a sufficient standard of German language attainment to cope with lectures, seminars and studies. Students are recommended to undertake a course of German in their home

country, or failing this, to study at a Goethe Institute or equivalent establishment prior to seeking admission to the higher education course proposed.

Finally, although tuition fees as such are not payable, the student is required to be able to demonstrate the ability to pay his or her way with the cost of study materials unless in receipt of a scholarship, the Administration Body Subscription, and the cost of accommodation whilst attending university or college. Students from Community countries, unlike other foreign students, are absolved from the need of social insurance cover, however, under Community agreements.(1)

In general, German higher education has proved attractive to students from other Community countries, so that in 1975-6 some 6,750 Community students attended German higher education institutions, including 2,264 French, 1,034 British and 1,327 Dutch students who comprised more than two thirds of the total. Just over half that number of German students chose to study elsewhere in the Community - and of this 3,641 almost half chose France - 1,770 - with the next largest group - 672 - choosing to study in the U.K.(2)

As regards post-graduate students, no restrictions exist on places for most subjects, but unfortunately, under the existing numerus clausus arrangements which affect certain subjects - these students are included in the 6 or 8% of places available.

As for teachers in higher education, to go abroad a teacher must seek permission from his university, and if he has Civil Service status and wishes to protect it, he also must obtain permission from the Minister of Education of his Land. Leave of absence with security of tenure for periods of up to six months is readily given in most instances, but, with the growing emphasis now placed upon teaching duties as a result

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1. Commission of the E.C., Student Handbook, pp.77-82.

2. Commission of the E.C., op. cit., COM(78) 468 Final, Brussels, September 1978, p.12.

of expanding student numbers, it has made it more difficult to get permission for leave of absence for more protracted periods. At present it is difficult for certain categories of higher education teachers to get incremental and pension recognition for service in another country, and so prior negotiation is usually necessary.

An enquiry was undertaken in Germany to ascertain just how widespread was the practice of teaching or researching in another Community country, and what plans there were to increase mobility amongst teachers. Jürgen Lechner, of Bayerischer Philologenverband in Munich, a teachers' organisation already referred to, was similarly less than sanguine. "There are opportunities for teachers with a certain level of professional experience", he writes, "but there are particular problems which confront those with family commitments and who cannot meet the obligations of such a project. One could certainly envisage an increase in academic exchanges, although at present, funds available for this purpose are being reduced".

There are no restrictions upon foreign teachers, particularly Europeans, coming to higher education establishments in Germany, and they are free to retain their original citizenship. If, however, the post entails Civil Service status, this is granted subject to the merits of the candidate and the interests of the requesting body, and if appointed to be a Land Official, the foreigner can be required to take an oath of allegiance to the Basic Law.

In France there are some special institutions within the higher education system - the Grandes Ecoles and the Ecoles d'Ingenieure. Here quotas for admission of foreign nationals are negligible, with only about 300 out of the 30,000 students foreign, but even than they are required to have originated from a French-speaking country, or to have passed a competitive examination or be in possession of a suitable qualification.

In France's 69 universities, and 65 I.U.T.S Instituts universitaires de technology, on the other hand, there are no numerical quotas imposed - except to restrict applicants for medicine at the various over-subscribed Paris Universities to 5%.

The necessary qualifications for university entry are those equivalent to the French Baccalaureate, university entry standard, or qualifications which would secure the applicant a university place in his or her home country.

No tuition fees are payable at public institutions although there may be some small subscriptions payable to the library, medical service, insurance, sports association, etc.

Evidence of an adequate knowledge of French is required from the outset, and candidates are advised to undertake a pre-university language course in France to learn the language or to improve their mastery of it.

Because of her very open policy towards foreign students France shares with West Germany the distinction of playing host to the largest number of foreign students from other European countries in her higher education establishments. Thus in 1974-5 France had 6,480 students from other European countries in her higher education establishments, including 1,770 from West Germany, 1,705 from the U.K., 1,208 from Italy, between them comprising 72% of the total. In 1977-8 there were in all 10,942 Community students attending French universities and I.U.T., and possibly more if one counts those at Grandes Ecoles, etc. This represented more than 1% of the total student population in French higher education.(1)

Less than half as many French students were going to higher education establishments abroad, 3,200 in 1974-5, of which 2,264 or 71%

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1. Commission of the E.C., A Handbook for Students, p.122.

went to West Germany. It is clear that bi-lateral arrangements between France and Germany have had a lot to do with this highly-developed two-way traffic.(1)

As regards post-graduate students, there is no national policy governing the admission of Community students and such admission depends upon the individual universities, and the demand for the particular subject concerned.

As for mobility of teachers in higher education, established teachers may be seconded with promotion and pension rights assured, or simply be seconded without these rights, or granted leave of absence for studies or research of general interest for up to three years. Alternatively, a teacher can obtain short leave of absence for six weeks in a year which may be carried forward for up to two years.

Non-established teachers can spend a period abroad, but there is no guarantee that they will find a comparable job on their return. Research workers at the Centre National de la Reserche Scientifique find it easier to go abroad, which is why teachers often seek attachment to the centre as a means of going abroad. Staff who have been seconded and gone to work abroad for several years, even though they have reinstatement rights, still run the risk of losing their promotion prospects.

As regards foreign teachers seeking employment in French higher education establishments, they may be appointed professor or maitre de conferences if they are suitable, subject to university and ministerial approval, but in practice universities cannot afford to appoint foreign teachers and the number of posts reserved for foreigners is low. Coupled with this, the educational cut-backs of recent years have led to a reduction in the overall number of higher education and research posts available.

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1. Commission of the E.C., op. cit., COM(78) 468 Final, Brussels, September 1978, p.12.

There is a very limited number of places for researchers in French higher education establishments and in this context Community applicants have a slight advantage over foreign applicants generally, since they are not required to obtain a work permit.(1)

As has been demonstrated by the above analysis, there is far from perfect academic mobility within the Community at present.

The obstacles are substantially those which have existed for many years. They include restrictions upon the number of students to be admitted, particularly in subjects for which domestic and foreign demands are high, or to institutions which are particularly prestigious, under the so-called "numerus clausus" arrangements. The only really effective solution is to ensure that there are sufficient places in the higher education establishments of the Community to meet the overall level of demand in each subject, and to work on the principle of offering students who have earned eligibility for a place an assured vacancy within the Community, but not necessarily within any particular country.

Secondly, there is the general lack of linguistic competence on the part of students to cope with their studies in another tongue, which has given rise to the perfectly reasonable stipulation, on the part of most higher education establishments, that their foreign admission candidates ought to be able to communicate in the national language which is to be the vehicle for all the studies. Solutions include effective provisions in every country to ensure that, in future, all students will become bi-lingual or multilingual during the course of their secondary education, as recommended in Chapter 7 above; better facilities for the provision of intensive language courses for candidates about to take up higher education places in another Community country; and finally, relaxation of the legal restrictions which require all teaching and other educational

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1. Committee for Higher Education and Research, op. cit., C.C.C. Strasbourg, 1977, pp.51-54.

activities in a country's institutions to be conducted in the national language of that country, so that these activities can be conducted in any other language where it is seen to be beneficial or acceptable to the students concerned.

Thirdly, ignorance exists on the part of students about entry qualifications, application procedures, available courses, fees and conditions, standards required, etc., or on the part of teachers about academic and professional requirements, conditions of employment, questions about pension rights, recognition of service, and so on. Some at least of this ignorance has already been dispelled thanks to the appearance of the Handbook for Students and as already noted, there are plans to produce a similar book for teachers and researchers.

Fourthly, as regards financial obstacles to mobility, including the costs of tuition, travel to and from university, accommodation, social insurance, etc., these are in some instances intrinsically linked to the quota restrictions imposed upon foreign admissions and already referred to above. These quotas, in so far as they reflect genuine shortages of places, have to be borne with until such time as the shortages that have been their justification have been done away with. As the Commission of the European Community recommends - "Where in any state a policy of numerical limitation on admission exists, a reasonable number of places is to be made available" - what is "reasonable" to be interpreted "in the light of a continuing review of existing levels of mobility".(1) But in point of fact the system is abused in some instances. In Belgium, for example, tuition fees as much as six to twenty times the size of those payable by home students are imposed upon all foreign students above the 2% quota. The only exceptions to this are through the

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1. Commission of the E.C., op. cit., COM(78) 468 Final, Brussels, September 1978, p.3, paragraph II A. 1.

concessions for European Community students "whose parents are employed in Belgium, or were so, and who are citizens of an E.C. country".(1) Discriminatory tuition fees are also chargeable to foreign students in Eire and the U.K., while the tuition fees are the same for all students in the Netherlands and Italy, and are not payable at all in France and West Germany, or in Denmark and Luxembourg.

To help with payment of fees some Community countries offer scholarships to their own nationals studying abroad or for other Community students seeking admission to their own institutions. There are also some scholarships awarded by foundations, trusts, and even by some higher education establishments themselves. Finally, since 1981-2, a limited number of comprehensive scholarships to cover all the student's principal expenses have been made available by the Community, but these are only granted for one year, for students whose study abroad is an "integral part of their course of study at their home institution", and as such it therefore does not meet the needs of the majority of students seeking to undertake a degree course in another Community country.

Finally, there are obstacles associated with the mutual recognition of one another's academic and professional qualifications, between Community countries, or of study, work or research undertaken in another country. In the absence of any clear and consistant guidance to students regarding recognition of periods of study spent abroad, or any other comprehensive system of equivalence for academic or professional qualifications acquired abroad, and for that matter, any clear dispensation for teachers concerning any possible seniority and pension rights following employment in another European country, the advice given in the introduction to "A Handbook for Students" is probably relevant:-

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1. Commission of the E.C., "Handbook for Students", p.20.

> "The handbook does not include information on the extent to which periods of study undertaken abroad can be 'recognised' in the student's home country. These provisions vary a great deal from country to country and it is important that students, before embarking on a period of study abroad, should satisfy themselves as to the extent to which their period of study will subsequently be recognised for the purpose of their continuing studies on their return home. Similarly, those proceeding to a full course of study abroad, leading to a qualification of the institution in the host country, should ensure that they are fully informed as to the extent to which the qualifications will be recognised in their home country".(1)

In short, apart from mutual recognition by most higher education establishments of one another's entry qualifications, and mutual recognition, as a result of Community directives, of the professional qualifications of doctors, nurses, dentists and veterinary surgeons, many other occupations, including the teaching profession, have yet to enjoy the benefit of similar aids to mobility. So long as this state of uncertainty remains, the onus for gaining recognition will continue to lie with the individual - to prove his or her own case, and hopefully, through this to create precedents for those who follow, so that eventually established practice makes the situation clear.

It seems that the Commission, in making its advice to students given in the introduction to the Handbook for Students as quoted above, was taking a similar line to that of Edwin Cox - that the way forward does not lie in "devising systems of equivalence" but more in "increasing incentives and removing non-academic barriers to create a situation approximating to a free academic market".(2) Given guidance through the plethora of obstacles - a task in which the Students' Handbook represents a useful contribution, and given the right incentives, the student, and the teacher or researcher for that matter,

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1. Commission of the E.C., Handbook for Students, Introduction, p.9.

2. Edwin H. Cox, op. cit., Chapter VI, "A Policy for Increased Mobility", p.41.

will be encouraged to go abroad, while the higher education institutions themselves, through exercise of their discretionary powers and judgement over individual cases, will acquire the expertise to facilitate greater mobility in future. The Community authorities are therefore probably right not to enforce standard procedures upon higher education which would arouse its resentment as infringeing upon national and academic autonomy, or showing insufficient regard for their distinctive circumstances. Such pressure could only, in the long run, be counter-productive. Given the incentives, institutions have to discover for themselves the benefits which can accrue to them from growing academic mobility. The complicated adjustments which are needed are therefore best left to natural processes of negotiation and arbitration which can bring about the achievement of mutually-acceptable settlements.

If one cites a possible historical parallel, that of the contributions of the early turnpike roads and railway companies to our present-day national road networks, it is at once apparent that the original small private systems were full of local anomalies and inconsistencies which made life intolerable for travellers who used them at the time. However, pressures for rationalisation and development of these piecemeal services, to make the kind of consistent service provisions which we have come to expect from transport as from any other major public utility, were not the outcome of government intervention, but were provided by the ever-increasing mobility of goods, labour and capital throughout the nineteenth century, which necessitated natural adjustment in the course of time. It is unfortunate that any such period of transition will inevitably be fraught with difficulties, but it is no less certain that active mobility, once achieved, will itself bring about a far more equitable and effective rationalisation of the existing provisions for academic mobility than any amount of national or Community legislation could hope to achieve, and without the

accompanying discredit to Community government which might otherwise ensue. It will also avoid the unjust imposition of new practices upon localities where the local needs must continue to dictate distinctive provisions until such time as local circumstances which brought those provisions into being have also changed. In short, the kind of rationalisation necessary to promote academic mobility is better undertaken in response to social and economic needs than enforced or speeded up by legal imposition.

CHAPTER XIV: SPECIFIC APPROACHES: 8. TERTIARY AND CONTINUOUS EDUCATION: ACHIEVEMENTS TO DATE AND POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS.

Tertiary Education performs several functions including technical and vocational education, teacher training, higher education and adult education, and also includes many courses of a recreational or cultural nature.

Thus, in the U.K., technical and vocational education is provided through Colleges of Further and Higher Education, and Technical Colleges; teacher training through Colleges of Education, University Departments of Education and Liberal Arts Colleges; Higher Education through Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education; and Adult Education through such organisations as University Extra-mural and Adult Education Departments, Colleges of Further Education, Evening Institutes, etc.

In the Netherlands technical and vocational education is provided through the L.T.O., M.T.O. and H.T.S., lower, middle and higher technical schools, as well as more specialised institutions such as L, M, and H.N.O. for nautical training, L,M, and H.H.N.O. for Domestic Science courses, L, M, and H.E.A.O. for commercial and clerical courses, and L, M, and H.L.O. For agriculture, horticulture and forestry courses; teacher training is provided through teacher training academies for pre-primary and primary teachers, through teacher training institutes and universities for secondary school teachers; Higher Education through universities and universities of technology; and Adult Education through Folk High Schools, correspondence colleges and volksuniversitat.

In West Germany technical and vocational education is provided through the apprentice training schools, technical and higher technical schools, right up to fachhochschulen, institutions of university status; teacher training through colleges or university departments all of which

are designated as universities - or hochschulen; higher education through the universities - including technological and comprehensive universities and specialised colleges of university status; and adult education through Education Institutes and evening schools at main, intermediate and gymnasium levels.

Finally, in France technical and vocational education is provided through the pre-vocational classes of the College d'Enseignement Secondaire (C.E.S.) followed by a period of study at a vocational lycée (L.E.P.) or one of the more advanced General or Technical lycées (L.E.G.T.s), from which students may aspire to Colleges of Technical Education, University Institutes of Technology (I.U.T.) Polytechnics, Business Colleges, National Institutes of Applied Sciences, etc. Teacher training is provided through les écoles normales, les écoles normales superieures, the universities, les institutes preparatoire aux enseignements de seconde degre (I.P.E.S.) and various regional pedagogical centres; higher education through les grandes écoles, the universities and the I.U.T. In France facilities for adult education, in the sense that they exist in other Western European countries, are provided by the Universites Populaires. These classifications are, however, imprecise and the provisions tend to overlap one another in each country. The real-life situation is a great deal more complex than the above analysis would suggest.

As previously indicated a number of the recommendations put forward by the major European institutions have already been implemented by various educational establishments in the Tertiary Sector. First, for instance, the E.E.C. advocated teacher training, curricular development and the development of support facilities and resources for the promotion of European Studies in schools.(1) Already, European Studies is an

1. Commission of E.C., "Educational Activities with a European Content: The Study of the European Community in Schools", COM(78) 241 Brussels, 8th June 1978, p.5, paragraph 16 (a) (b) (c) (d) and (e).

established study area in schools, universities and higher education establishments generally, is an element in teacher training, or else, as on the mainland of Europe, it is studied through the other main subjects of the curriculum, notably history and geography. Universities, teachers' training colleges and the various technical and commercial sectors of higher education have all taken account of European integration in the curricula, many have made moves towards developing joint courses, and pioneered the setting up of European documentation and information centres. The Community has even established two university-level, post-graduate, institutions of its own - the College of Europe in Bruges and the European University Institute of Florence.

Secondly, the E.E.C. has challenged tertiary education establishments to develop better programmes for the initial and in-service training of specialist language teachers(1) to find ways in which higher education students could combine foreign language courses with their chosen discipline to form an integral part of their degree courses, and to develop intensive adult language courses to meet the vocational needs of adults.(2) Some of the contributions made by tertiary education in response to these challenges have incorporated the findings and linguistic researches of Dr. Carpay of Utrecht University, de Heer J.A. van Ek, Reader in English at the University of Groningen, the Reverend Father Mooijman of Ignatius College in Amsterdam, and others, into developing new language teaching methods applicable to migrant workers, adults and other sectors of the population other than children at school. Efforts have also been made in the teacher training establishments to improve the quality of language

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1. Commission to the Council, "Education Action Programme at Community Level: The Teaching of Languages in the Community", COM(78) 222 Final, 14th June 1978.

2. General Report of the Education Committee on the progress made with the implementation of the Action Programme of 9th February 1976, op. cit., pp.29-32.

training in schools through improved training for the specialist language teachers themselves.

Thirdly, as regards the development of pedagogical documentation and information centres to help in the co-ordination of the efforts of the teachers themselves to promote European consciousness in schools, as recommended by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe in 1965(1) and the subject of a formal resolution by the C.C.C. of the Council of Europe,(2) the subsequent development of the I.D.G., The Information and Documentation Centre for the Geography of the Netherlands established in 1964, was a major 'first-fruit' of this recommendation.

The efforts of the major international organisations to create co-ordinating information services for education - the E.E.C. through EURYDICE, the Council of Europe through EUDISED, and the O.E.C.D. through C.E.R.I. have already been described in Chapter 11. The national, regional, and local centres established in the U.K. which come under the co-ordination of the United Kingdom Centre for European Education have also come under examination. It can be demonstrated how many of these centres have grown up under the aegis of a higher education establishment, and so may be regarded as contributions by higher education to the European cause.

Finally, the efforts undertaken within Higher Education to promote greater academic mobility amongst its students, researchers and teachers, as recommended in the 1976 Action Programme in the field of education resolved by the Commission of the European Community(3) have been considered in Chapter 13.

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1. I.D.C., Anglo-Dutch conference on the revision of geography textbooks - final report, Utrecht, 25-29th August, 1975, p.1.
2. Prospectus, Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, 1980, p.1.
3. Council and Ministers of Education meeting within the Council of 9th February 1976, comprising an action programme in the field of education, Part IV, p.4, paragraph 14.

In each of the above ways Tertiary Education has already made a substantial contribution to the integration of Europe. There are, however, yet more significant and far-reaching contributions to the European cause which only these institutions are equipped to make because they are capable of reaching - not simply young adults on the threshold of their life's work - but also all the people already engaged in present-day public affairs, so that the impact they make can be so much more immediate and far-reaching that of any other sector of formal education. This consideration is paramount in view of the urgency felt by many Europeans who believe that the survival of Europe may depend upon achieving its integration promptly, if possible in the course of a single generation.

An important factor in the capacity of Tertiary Education to make a contribution in this way has been the growing realisation of the need for continuous education. This has been created by the pressure upon people to resort to educational amenities at various points in their lifetime to help them cope with their personal problems of adjustment, or to keep pace with socio-economic or technological changes in their working life which threaten their security. It has also been brought about by growing anxieties on the part of European governments who are obliged to cater for the needs of people who feel these pressures upon them, to create an educational system capable of helping society adjust rapidly to accelerated changes, and - at the same time as expanding education into an on-going life-long process - finding ways of keeping the overall cost of it down to manageable levels. The far-seeing vanguard of Europeans who see European integration as part of that response of society to socio-economic, political and technological change, can also see in continuous education the vehicle for the wholesale reconstruction of Europe as a politically and economically integrated whole, and for meeting the needs of countless Europeans. This is not unlike the

situation in which surgeons giving a sick man a heart transplant know that they are not only helping to ensure his personal survival, but are also bringing new hope of happiness and prosperity to his dependents. In this case it is continuous education which holds the key to the regeneration of European society, and, by holding out hope of European integration, can enable Europe not only to survive but become more effective in serving the needs of its people.

Already, over the last century or so, it has been the various institutions of the Tertiary Education sector, made up of what in the U.K. is called further, higher and adult education, which have developed to provide for the regeneration of society more rapidly than formal education of the young can do; and so they have, in their own fragmented way, been providing some very limited element of continuous education.

In the U.K. adult education performs part of this function, aided by such organisations as the Workers' Education Association (W.E.A.), the Co-operative Education Committees and the District Evening Institutes, all of which provide a range of cultural and recreational courses. In addition, Further Education provides lower level academic and vocational education, through full-time, part-time day, day release, block release and evening courses. Courses are provided to serve not only the needs of young people, housewives, the unemployed and the elderly, but also for people already in employment - those in management, commerce, manufacturing industry, service industry and the professions. There are, in addition, people such as the self-employed, whose working hours are sufficiently flexible to permit them to study in their own time. In this connection, there is a whole range of correspondence courses provided by colleges such as the National Extension College in Cambridge, and Wolsey Hall, Oxford, including "O" and "A" Level G.C.E.s, London External Degrees as well as several professional qualifications, which can meet the needs of people studying at home. In recent years the Open

University has emerged, offering live tuition and radio/television or sound/video recorded lessons to supplement its basic correspondence courses, offering its own amenities and conferring its own degrees. In ways such as these, people have the opportunity to make new careers for themselves at any age, to improve or up-date their professional competences, to improve their general education, or simply acquire "new" cultural interests and skills, or improve existing ones, for satisfaction or pleasure. A recent extension of similar principles to those upon which the Open University is based lies behind the growth of "Open Learning" courses, compiled by existing correspondence colleges such as the National Extension College and Wolsey Hall, and with the "live" elements implemented through Colleges of Further Education. These provisions are intended to serve the needs not only of those who work un-social hours and so cannot attend college for day or evening classes, but also the elderly, disabled, those housebound with elderly dependents or young children, single parent families, those geographically isolated, or those who simply prefer private study.

In the Netherlands the Folk High Schools have for many years provided cultural and recreational education for adults. There are correspondence courses designed to provide refresher courses or vocational courses to help improve peoples' job prospects or to offer recreational courses designed to enable people to acquire new hobbies in the comfort of their own homes. There is also a long tradition of "participation education", in which some twenty-three centres and an additional ten annexes help to provide facilities for those who feel they have "missed out" in their career for lack of basic education or vocational skills. In addition, nearly all substantial centres of population have their Volksuniversitat, an institution offering opportunities for a "second chance" to members of what tends to be a rather middle-class clientele seeking to acquire additional academic attainments, or else improve their

existing technical or vocational education.

Holland has also set about establishing its own Open University at Heerlen, in Limburg - the extreme south of the country, and it seems likely that it will be only a matter of time before the "Open Learning" principle catches on as well, particularly since, as in the U.K., the correspondence course tradition is well established already.

In the Federal Republic of West Germany, the Federal Government has sought to ensure that all young people, provided they are sufficiently motivated, can find their way to the highest levels of education either via the more orthodox 'gymnasium' route, or else by an "Alternative educational path" the Zweiter Bildungsweg, which involves a "dual system" of training throughout their trade apprenticeship - with vocational school and "at-work" training running concurrently - successful completion of which entitles the apprentice to go on to the higher grade vocational school, and thence, if successful to fachhochschule - an institution of university status. This ladder for those who have already left school was established under the Federal Vocation Training Act of 1969. The Zweiter Bildungsweg also remains "open" theoughout life for the adult in full-time employment who at any time comes to feel that the work he or she has obtained since leaving school is not fulfilling or else a "dead-end". Furthermore, under the Land North Rhine Westphalian Law adopted in 1974 and implemented since 1975, such continuous education and training is a legal entitlement - and under Article I of the Act - "Each person has the right to acquire the knowledge and qualifications he needs for the free development of his personality and the free choice of his occupation".(1) A whole range of educational and training possibilities are covered under the Act, including non-vocational and vocational, scientific, political,

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1. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, "The development of permanent education in Europe", Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, 1976, p.54, paragraph 51.

recreational, creative, parental and personal. Large towns must make adequate volkschochschule - peoples' university - provisions available, while small towns of fewer than 40,000 inhabitants have to join up into viable groups for this purpose. The existing provisions in municipalities, such as those under Institutes of Education, the Evening Main, Intermediate and Gymnasium Schools and Special Secondary Schools, must be supplemented to bring them up to the level of the VHS provisions required under the law. These legal requirements include facilities for no less than 7,200 hours of tuition per annum in VHS for a municipality of 40,000 inhabitants or more, plus an additional 2,400 hours for each 40,000 people more. The State is willing to finance the full cost of such minimal provisions, plus sixty percent of the full cost of other institutions, whatever the number of teaching hours provided.

These provisions, although falling short of continuous education, do make available the means for young and rather older people who have left "main-stream" education to come back into it again. To take up studies through an Institute of Education, in order to work towards university entry, the possession of evidence of previous vocational training or at least three years regular employment entitles the student to a maintenance grant geared to family income. The courses available through the fachhochschulen or polytechnics, and volkschochschulen or peoples' universities, include Humanities as well as technical and vocational studies. Some Volkschochschulen even provide boarding facilities for their mature students. In addition, Germany's counterpart to the Open University, the Fernuniversitat, established at Hagen, has been in operation since 1975.

At first sight the French Loi d'Orientation of 1968 and the Industrial Acts of 1971, as they govern continuous education and training, appear to embody something very like the ideal of continuous education,

because they establish the principles of continuous education as a national obligation, and of the individual's right to it. The concessions, however, have been almost invalidated, by the conditions under which the courses have been made available, and the nature of the courses provided. For example, many courses are strictly vocational, with contents determined by employers and trades unions, subject to government approval. The individual is not consulted, and, except in so far as he or she exercises entitlement to the courses before the Law, participation appears to be on a "take it or leave it" basis.

The Law states that "permanent vocational training is a national obligation. It comprises an initial course of training and subsequent training for adults and young people already working or seeking their first job. The subsequent courses of training constitute continuous vocational training. Vocational training forms part of permanent education". Article Seven goes on to stipulate that "Throughout their working life, wage-earners ... who wish to undergo training on courses approved by the State ... and who make a formal request to their employer ... are entitled to a leave of absence". This study leave is their right provided they have been employed for at least two years in a given company, but it is also subject to there being "no more than 2% of workers ... absent at the same time" and the amount of leave entitlement "corresponds to the length of the course but may not exceed one year where an uninterrupted full-time course is concerned, or 1,200 hours in the case of courses forming a cycle of instruction including discontinuous or part-time attendance".(1)

The limited nature of the courses is clearly demonstrated in the categories cited below:-

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1. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, "The development of permanent education in Europe", Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, 1976, p.56, paragraph 52.

I. Pre-training Courses - vocational preparation of young persons with no training or with unsuitable training, including Conversion Courses designed to provide unemployed women who wish to resume work or change their job with the necessary training.

II. Re-training or Prevention Courses - designed to facilitate changes of occupation, for people threatened with redundancy.

III. Adaptation Courses - involving training for a first job or a new job.

IV. Promotion Professionelle - provision of more advanced qualifications to help serve the needs of people seeking promotion.

V. Entretion et perfectionement de connaissances - refresher or further training courses designed to enable workers to keep abreast with change or innovation in their careers.

Under the Industrial Act of July 1971 every firm with ten employees or more is required to devote 2% of its total salary bill to continuous education. The firm must meet its obligations by training its own staff in a manner approved by the government within the company, or by contracting with some approved outside body - that is, "approved" by the government and trades unions to undertake the training on its behalf. Failing these expedients, the firm is required to pay over the contribution to the Treasury, while the employee is then entitled to apply for leave to undertake training of his or her own choice, subject to government verification to avoid abuse of the concession.

About 1½ million workers in France were in receipt of training courses in 1973. Promising as this law is potentially, in practice the narrowly defined "approved" courses, and the facts that courses tend to be confined to short courses ranging from only a few days to several months, and to be most beneficial to skilled workers or professionals,(1) represent very real limitations on their value in terms of providing

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1. Vernon Mallison, op. cit., p.242.

continuous education. The available courses seem to be oriented more to the needs of industry and commerce, than to the needs and aspirations of individuals. Such an assessment, however, disregards the context of events in which the Loi d'Orientation and the subsequent enactments have been operating since 1974. In the words of Raymond Hickel:-

> "The present economic situation, the unemployment problems, and various other factors certainly are no help towards implementing a series of legal dispositions originally voted in a time of prosperity. ... my own impression is that if a French worker (is seeking social advancement) he or she still has all the legal means to do so, even if what he wants to do has nothing to do with his job, i.e. Fine Arts for a mechanic. But what he or she is really anxious about is not to lose his job, or earning more to make both ends meet"(1)

Similar assessments have been furnished independently from several sources. Thus, according to "Descriptions of the Vocational Training Systems - France", published by C.E.D.E.F.O.P.,

> "In accordance with its heritage, the contemporary continuing training system pursues two principal objectives: namely, vocational training and social advancement. ... However, as soon as the economic crisis set in in 1974, labour market conditions deteriorated rapidly. The continuing training system found itself obliged to adapt to a changed situation.
> - to accord priority to financing those training activities which would contribute to solving employment problems,
> - to encourage employers to contribute to training measures specifically designed for job-seekers,
> - to facilitate the integration of (young unemployed people) into working life.
>
> The social advancement aspect of the continuing education system, and in particular the right of the individual to training leave, consequently failed to receive the promotion which has been envisaged.
>
> The State for its part, undertook a reform of training leave in legislation adopted in 17 July 1978. The principal revisions were as follows:-
> - salary payments to employees undergoing training leave on approved courses should be maintained by the employers for a specified period, and, after expiry of this period, by the State,
> - the concept of training leave was redefined to give greater emphasis to the individual character of this right, and to its social and cultural objectives. Training leave taken on the initiative of the employee was henceforth detatched from any training provision initiated by the employer.

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1. Raymond Hickel, Directeur du C R D R, Strasbourg, in a personal assessment of the Loi d'Orientation, 2nd October 1984.

The 1978 reform brought the right to training leave to its contemporary form"(1)

A comparable interpretation of the facts has been provided by Genevieve Delavallée, l'attaché Culturel of the French Embassy in London.(2)

As regards existing provisions for adults wishing to take up higher education in later life, unlike the other countries examined, France has no real equivalent of the Open University, although University Paris VIII at Vincennes, and the Conservatoire National des Arts er Metiers, both of which have been considered above, are institutions which have sought to take advantage of Le Loi d'Orientation, which advocated that universities should change so as to serve the needs of the entire adult population more effectively. Neither of these institutions, however, is geared to serving the needs of a nation-wide clientele in the manner of the Open University or a corresponding institution elsewhere. But France does not appear to have felt the need for such an institution. For one thing, the fees charged for students, regardless of nationality, at French universities and other institutions of higher education are "nominal".(3) Furthermore, as Monsieur Hickel has pointed out, "many lectures (conducted at the universities) are open to the general public free of charge", and "institutions such as the 'universites populaires' have a good enrolement", too. "The opportunities for culture are numerous and widespread".(4)

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1. Catherine Legave, Dominique Vignaud, Centre for the Development of Information of Lifelong Education, French contribution to a study carried out for the European Centre for the Development of vocational Training (CEDEFOP) Berlin, December 1979, pp.48-51.
2. Genevieve Delavallée, Service de la Documentation et des Echanges Pedagogique, on subject of Education Permanente, 10th October 1984.
3. Cultural Department of the French Embassy, "Education in France", London (1979) p.36.
4. Raymond Hickel, Directeur du C.R.D.P., Strasbourg, on the subject of Education Permanente, 2nd October 1984.

If then one compares the situation regarding provisions for continuous education as they exist in the U.K., the Netherlands, West Germany and France at present, it is clear that only France and Germany have established a legal basis to support the individual's right to continuous education, with some level of economic support to reinforce it. On the other hand, the U.K., and next to her, West Germany, appear to offer the kind of liberal further and higher education provisions which could make for genuine autonomy and choice in study on the part of the individual, provided they were readily accessible to all. Yet only Germany appears to hold open the door to these liberal amenities, whereas the U.K. seems to be bent upon closing the doors to opportunity, and placing a growing emphasis upon narrowly-conceived vocational education for its young people, by starving its tertiary education system of the funds it would require from central government in order to meet even existing demands upon it, let alone develop provisions for continuous education.

Of the four countries under scrutiny, the Netherlands and France might appear to offer the least liberal provisions for continuous education in terms of student choice.

In the case of the Netherlands, this can probably be attributed, at least in part, to the peculiar problems confronting the Dutch, who:-

> "With limited resources and a high birthrate, (are under pressure to) make the best use of their human resources".(1)

This they endeavour to do by developing a wide range of vocation courses, and helping workers to be versatile, so as to meet the needs of a rapidly-developing high technology, and by encouraging only the best-suited students to embark upon traditional academically-based courses of higher education.

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op.cit., p.192.

As for the French, it seems likely that although the government has established a legal framework capable of providing continuous education in more prosperous times, the events of the last ten years or so have made the first priority that of helping the unemployed, those threatened with technological redundancy, etc. Meanwhile, French further and higher education has, since 1968, undergone considerably more reform in terms of democratising the inistitutions, liberalising the courses and making them more relevant and more readily available to students from all sectors of society, than in the previous hundred years.(1)

None of the Tertiary education systems described above even go as far as approximating to real continuous education, the nature of which must be examined closely at this point, before it is possible to consider the course that should be mapped out for the future development of continuous education in Europe. Such development seems to offer the only complete solution to the problems confronting European formal education.

It has always been a primary role of formal education to pass on the existing cultural values of society to the next generation, so as to help ensure its stability. Now, however, some of these cultural values are themselves subject to question, and formal education is under challenge to up-date, adapt, and where necessary even replace traditional cultural values so as to ensure the relevance of what they transmit. Another challenge arises from the fact that modern technology is progressing at an accelerating rate, while at the same time Europe itself is undergoing traumatic socio-economic and political changes associated with its on-going integration. Thus education is coming under pressure to re-educate the entire population not just once or even twice, but continuously throughout the conceivable future, simply in order to keep

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1. Vernon Mallinson, op. cit., p.325.

pace with all changes affecting European society. Then again, the education system itself is in need of reform, not only because it needs to be liberalised, enlarged and rendered more effective and relevant to the challenges outlined above, but also because education has recently undergone a confidence crisis which needs to be resolved before it can be made effective. Because all these problems have come to a head at this time, all need to be solved simultaneously. The emergence of continuous education holds out solutions to the problems, because it is capable of rapid adaptation to changing human needs and situations, is more effective in reaching all sectors of European society, is relatively cheaper and more cost-effective, and more able to win back public confidence in education, provided it is made freely available, and autonomous, so that it meets the wishes and needs of the individual and is seen as relevant to the problems confronting the individual.

The "Plan Europe 2000" project, undertaken by the Institute of Education of the University of Paris, between 1968 and 1975, has researched the educational problems confronting Europe, and provided what is probably the most complete exposition of continuous education, and the way it can help meet the needs of Europe in transition.(1)

According to "Plan Europe 2000", educational reform is so urgent that radical and creative changes need to be instituted at once if ever the collective effects of them are to be felt by the turn of the twenty-first century.(2) Such reforms must include the improvement of the organisational structures of the education system, the diversification and effective mobilisation of educational resources, regionalisation of education systems, enhancement of the official and

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, Editor, "Education without frontiers: a study of the future of education from the European Cultural Foundation's Plan Europe 2000, with a forward by John Vaizey, Duckworth, London 1976.

2. Gabriel Fragnière, op.cit., Part V, Preface-Action, p.167.

social status of the teaching profession, the realistic realignment of education with employment, and the institutionalisation of the innovation process.(1)

The structural reforms of education would involve development of a more flexible, diverse and open system of teaching institutions, yet one in which the sectors were also effectively co-ordinated, and in which the functions of each sector were clearly defined, so that they could not be usurped by any of the others. The system would include a school sector designed to relate more closely to natural child development, and a higher education sector which would be geared to providing guaranteed life-long education for all, with specialised forms of education for an essential minority. The suggested educational sectors proposed by "Plan Europe 2000" would include a compulsory sector, based upon the pupils' stages of "psychic and intellectual development" rather than their age, and corresponding roughly to existing primary and first cycle secondary stages; an exploration sector, corresponding roughly with the second cycle of secondary education and the existing provisions for vocational and technical education, in which pupils would be guided through self-discovery, and helped in the acquisition of the skills and initiative necessary to participate in autonomous life-long learning within the context of their useful working and social lives; and a higher education sector, corresponding to the further, higher and adult provisions of today's post-secondary education, but designed to go much further, by building upon the basic education acquired in the first sector, and the skills, experience and motivation acquired in the second, by offering flexible and relevant education and counselling, as and when required, to meet the needs and aspirations of adults who will continue to work towards self-realisation in every aspect, every stage and every circumstance of their lives.

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.171.

To render education more effective in human terms, rather than solely in terms of cost, "Plan Europe 2000" has advocated recruitment of every external source of information and every material or human resource society can offer to help in the educative process; development of more effective machinery for the analysis, improvement and administration of the entire educational process; fuller exploitation of educational amenities, and the setting up of consultative machinery to involve industry, trades unions, cultural institutions, the mass media, and all other aspects of real life in the activities and aspirations of formal education.(1)

Regionalisation of education systems is essential if decision-making is to be brought as close as possible to those affected by it. So that education can be made more responsive to the regional interests it is designed to serve, Plan Europe 2000 advocate that "national centralised education" should be replaced by regionalised education which need not necessarily be even related or contained within national boundaries, if these are in conflict with regional interests.(2)

To implement innovations and reform in education the right kind of teachers, both in terms of abilities and knowledge on the one hand, and sympathy with the innovations and reforms on the other, is essential. Without such teachers even the best-conceived schemes are likely to founder. Initial teacher training must be reformed, but it is also essential to gain the active co-operation of teachers already trained and practising, to achieve which end the status of all teachers must be enhanced - legally, officially, socially and financially, and such advancement must include improved prospects, involvement in decision-making processes, and opportunities to engage in continuous autonomous learning themselves.

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, op.cit., pp.173-175.

2. Gabriel Fragnière, op.cit., pp.176-177.

> "All teachers, at all sectors and levels, should possess the means and facilities for regular and thorough autonomous training ... there should be no recourse to specialised institutions run by education authorities to provide training courses to be attended by teachers - teachers must dispose of the time and facilities needed for their own continuous training".(1)

> "To break down the too regular rhythm of the teacher and to open up new possibilities for initiative", one solution suggested is that "-Every teacher should be guaranteed 10% of his time to continue his autonomous training, and 10% of the total expenditure on educational salaries should be reserved to finance it".(2)

> It was argued that "If we want European education to become in less than three decades strong enough to face the challenge of individual needs in a changing society, the present body of teachers must be transformed, not replaced".(3)

In order to re-align education with employment in the future, it will be necessary to rid ourselves of the dichotomy which sees education as a preparation for personal life and fulfulment on one hand, and for the world of work on the other. In an era which is likely to be characterised by continuing under-employment, human fulfilment will depend upon us learning to see education alternating with periods of work as the "fully accepted characteristic ... of an individual's activities through life".(4) It will be necessary to develop educational leave with financial support, closer links between education and work to ensure "job enrichment", and also closer links between education and bodies responsible for support of the unemployed, so that education, as much as work, comes to be seen as a "Useful" and a "productive" activity.

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.179.
2. Gabriel Fragnière, ibid., pp.179-180.
3. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.180.
4. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.181.

In the past educational innovation has tended to be very slow, and so society has tended to progress "from crisis to crisis" - painfully.(1) If the much-needed rapid changes in society are to be facilitated, then education itself will need to change rapidly - and to achieve this, built-in institutions for change will need to be evolved. If this is to be achieved, then:-

> "Power and responsibility must not be concentrated in one place ... there must be no monopoly of sources of information".(2)

Accordingly, two things are recommended in order to institutionalise the innovative process - first, decentralisation of decision-making and regionalisation of the organisation and structure of education, and secondly, "setting up of procedures to provide detailed and reliable information on all aspects of the educational system itself",(3) so that problems can be assessed, and the solutions selected, evaluated and implemented more readily. For this to be achieved:-

> "Research in education must be developed and institutionalised and be accorded an active role in the organisation and administration of education and in the innovative process ... Decentralisation and research are the keys to the institutionalisation of innovation".(4)

It remains to ask whether or not the European authorities have responded to any such powerfully-argued recommendations as those embodied in "Plan Europe 2000". The answer is "Yes" - since a whole series of studies, reports, working papers have subsequently been published by the E.E.C.

The Preface to "Education without frontiers" was written by Henri Janne, Chairman of the Scientific Committee of the Plan Europe 2000 Project, and this same educational researcher was indeed the co-author,

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1. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.182.
2. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.183.
3. Gabriel Fragnière, ibid., p.183.
4. Gabriel Fragnière, op. cit., p.184.

along with Bertrand Schwartz, of "The development of permanent education in Europe", written in the European Commission's Studies Collection, Education Series Number 3, published in the same year. This study argued a similar case for what was termed "permanent education", as a few selected references will demonstrate.

> "In recent years the concept of permanent education has been transformed into a fully fledged philosophy of education ... though everyone agrees that education and training should cover all the stages of a person's life, there remains the problem of defining the content ... and methods by which it should be applied, for these could range from authoritarian measures ... to democratic methods and self-education".(1)

> "Everyone is aware of rapid changes taking place in technology and in production of goods and services ... Because of these changes public and private undertakings have grasped the need to readapt, and hence to restrain, their staff at all levels and on a continuing basis".(2)

> "No one would dispute the need to introduce permanent education into the modern production system ... But the specific nature of this type of education must be recognised and the system must be applied discerningly, not just in order to meet short-term economic needs but as a means of avoiding all forms of conditioning at odds with the full development of the human personality".
>
> "... permanent education ... covers ... all stages of human life - not just working life alone. The first principle of 'inclusiveness' has to be backed up by another ... namely, a certain form of 'de-schooling' since the acquisition of knowledge depends upon breaking down the barriers between study, work and recreation" ...
>
> "It is the very goal of education being ... called into question ... no longer to provide instruction ... required by the established authority, but to enable each individual to gain understanding of his environment, know how to act upon it, and participate in social changes in general".(3)
>
> "When the concept of permanent education is defined, it is seen not in terms of "opportunities" but as a way of life".(4)

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1. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, "The development of permanent education in Europe", E.C. Commission Studies Collection, Education Series No.3, Brussels, 1976, Section B, I, p.11, paragraph 8.
2. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, ibid., Section B,II, p.11, paragraph 10.
3. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, ibid., Section B,II, p.13, paragraphs 11, 12, 13.
4. Henri Jane and Bertrand Schwartz, ibid., Section B,II, p.14, paragraph 15.

> "Whether man or woman, the adult, at least in advanced societies, senses educational needs arising from the rapid progress of knowledge, techniques and social relations and from the need to build on the formal education of his youth. Thus adult education may include vocational training, the resumption of formal "school-type" education beyond the level attained in youth, general and cultural education, and training for social and community roles (especially civic and family ones).
>
> Since adult education is that of a person who is responsible for his decisions and for his studies, he must be given the opportunity for self-managed education together with the necessary assistance and resources".(1)

> "Every education and training programme should reflect a well defined 'need' whose real nature can only be revealed through the problems experienced by the individual in his environment: ... mutual adjustment between 'needs' and 'education and training' should constitute a continuous process - in the form of 'projects' - that cover the whole of a person's life ..."(2)

It follows, then, that continuous education is required to serve the man or woman as worker, as citizen, as member of a family - at every stage of existence from the end of formal education to final death, and will be required to help meet all the problems of adjustment, and overcoming successive obstacles in the striving towards self-fulfulment and happiness.

The Community has, accordingly, examined several such aspects of continuing education, each seeking to identify a human 'need' belonging to a particular social group - whether it be associated with any of class, age, occupation, sex, level of educational attainment, etc.

So, for example, effort has been made to examine the problems of those in need of basic adult education, which include a number of identifiable social groups. Documents so far published dealing with basic literacy have included:-

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1. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, op. cit., Section B,VI, p.21, paragraph 23.

2. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, op. cit., Section B,VI, p.22, paragraph 24.

- a discussion paper prepared by Anthony R. Kaye of the Open University on "Integrated Methods for Basic Adult Education Programmes", and
- a report by Eoin Murphy arising out of group discussion at a seminar on new perspectives for continuing education and training in the European Community, entitled "The Development of basic adult Education and Literacy", and
- a report by Anna Lorenzetto on the "Problems of the Acquisition of Literacy in an enlarged community", and the following

observations are relevant here.

Anna Lorenzetto has noted the greater literacy of Northern, as opposed to Mediterranean Europe and attributed it to Protestant stress placed upon the reading of the Scriptures as a religious duty, as well as the earlier flowering of democracy, and emergence of modern economies and social services in these northern regions. She has also blamed illiteracy on the tendency to suppose that universal education provides the solution to it, the growing alienation of illiterates in a technologically-based society coupled with the awareness, on the part of a growing number of socially-deprived persons, that formal education does not serve their needs, as well as the segregation that exists between affluent and depressed regions, for aggravating the situation in recent years.(1) She has also observed that the European countries tend to fall into three groups - those who do not consider that they have any kind of adult literacy problem - notably France and Germany; those, including Denmark, the Netherlands, Ireland, Belgium and the United Kingdom, all of which are significantly located in Northern Europe, which admit to a modest illiteracy problem but have no statistics available and, with the exception of the U.K., have not undertaken any kind of programme to

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1. Anna Lorenzetto, "Report on the Problems of the acquisition of literacy in an enlarged community", XII/444/80, pp.9-11.

remedy it; and Italy and Portugal, both in Southern Europe, with massive illiteracy problems. For instance, whereas the Netherlands estimate that they have between 100,000 and 400,000 illiterates and semi-illiterates(1) out of a total population of 13.5 million in 1974,(2) i.e. something between ¾ and 3%, Italy has estimated that 5.2% of her population was illiterate, and 27.2% semi-illiterate in 1971.(3)

All three of the documents quoted above have endeavoured to identify the groups most in need of basic education. For example, Kaye identifies:-

> ..."Firstly, ... school-leavers who finish compulsory education with no formal qualifications of any value on the labour market and with only minimal competencies in basic literacy and numeracy, (which will probably have deteriorated rapidly within a few years of leaving school). School-leavers in this situation are generally from poor and disadvantaged milieux, have experienced a repeated sense of failure during their school years, and are particularly at risk in times of rising unemployment.
>
> Secondly, ... those adults, again from deprived sectors of society, who would welcome the opportunity to learn new skills and train for new jobs, but who have in a real sense been conditioned to believe that such formal and informal opportunities that do exist are "not for the likes of them". Many such people have, once again, been classed as failures at school" ...
>
> ... A third category ... is composed of the different ethnic minorities in a given society. Within this category could be grouped -
> - migrant workers (from Turkey, Portugal and West Africa),
> - members of immigrant communities (such as the Asians and West Indians in Britain),
> - nomads and gypsies.
>
> (They ... often need basic language and literary training in the tongue of their host country, as well as the provision of a range of facilities to help in the development of social survival and coping skills in a new and strange environment.
>
> Finally, ... at first sight less obviously disadvantaged groups -
> - working adults wishing to retrain for new jobs, and requiring some pre-vocational help and guidance before embarking on specialist training programmes.

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1. K. Hammink and P. Kohlen, "Analfabetisme in Nederland", September 1977.
2. Report of the Central Bureau of Statistics in the Netherlands, 1974.
3. Anna Lorenzetto, information based upon a Commission questionnaire, op. cit., pp.6-7.

- those running the risk of redundancy in years to come, and needing preparation for a changed, and probably worsening, personal situation in the future,
- married women who are about to return to work after childbirth and the early care of young children,
- parents wanting to understand, help and participate in the psychological and educational development of their own children,
- members of isolated rural communities, far from facilities taken for granted by those ... living in urban and well-provided regions,
- families moving to new industrial development areas and to new towns and cities".(1)

Murphy, reiterating many similar categories in need of basic education, also includes "the long-term unemployed, the elderly, people who are made redundant in middle age or are forced into early retirement ... (and) left without any constructive role in society".(2)

Lorenzetto, similarly, includes most of the same categories of illiterate, but also mentions disabled people who found it difficult to attend school for their formal education.(3)

Kaye provides the most comprehensive list of the basic skills required, including literacy and numeracy skills, social coping skills, parental and family education, consumer education, domestic economy, community education, and the raising of levels of awareness about existing opportunities".(4)

The very fact that there are so many different categories of basic educational skills, and so many categories of people at all stages of their lives in need of them, is what makes this the concern of continuous education - rather than simply child, or adult education.

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1. Anthony R. Kaye, Senior Lecturer in Educational Technology with the Open University, "Integrated Methods for Basic Education Programmes; some important issues", a discussion paper, May 1980, pp.1-3.
2. Eoin Murphy, Report of a seminar on new perspectives for continuing education and training in the European Community, held on the 14th-17th May, 1980, in Berlin, entitled "The Development of Basic Adult Education and Literacy", p.4.
3. Anna Lorenzetto, op. cit., p.6.
4. Anthony R. Kaye, op. cit., pp.4-5.

Kaye has probably given the most comprehensive analysis of the agencies concerned with providing basic education - government organisations, trades union organisations, voluntary bodies, various kinds of pressure groups, local education authorities and broadcasting organisations.(1)

However, Anna Lorenzetto has gone further in distinguishing between the modes of tuition - identifying not merely individual and group teaching, but also teaching through the mass media, and by citing several specific projects which have employed these approaches - singly or severally - in various parts of the world. These included Literacy Campaigns like that of the Adult Literacy Resource Agency (A.L.R.A.) in the U.K., which, between 1975-8, helped bring literacy to some 128,000 people using combined government and voluntary aid, and help from L.E.A.s, the mass media, and voluntary and paid tutors. In 1978 the work was taken over by the Adult Literacy Unit (A.L.U.) under the National Institute of Adult Education, and yet another 70,000 people were rendered literate in that year.(2) They have also included the establishment of cultural centres, functional alphabetization, project methods, voluntary social services, schemes to help deprived woman, and campaigns employing the mass media.(3) Although many such projects have been temporary, work must be on-going and can never be discontinued, since a major problem amongst deprived or isolated social groups, or in the Third World Countries, is that because people have so little stimulus or incentive to learn or practise literary skills, there is a constant process of regression - with literates sliding back into semi-illiteracy.(4)

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1. Anthony R. Kaye, op. cit., p.6.
2. Anna Lorenzetto, op. cit., p.7.
3. Anna Lorenzetto, ibid., pp.24-33.
4. Anna Lorenzetto, ibid., p.1.

On such grounds as these basic education ought to be, indeed must be, part of continuous education if it is to be effective and long-lasting, and if it is to reach all the people who need it most. It will also be the linch-pin of continuous education in the Third World Regions, where so little can be done to meet the life-long needs and aspirations of people while the majority cannot be reached through their ignorance.

The Community has also been looking into the question of improving or up-dating the technical/professional knowledge and skills of people already in full employment through vocational education. While it has been emphasised already by Janne and Schwartz(1) that continuous education must go far beyond mere vocational education; which also has been identified as the main short-coming of the French Loi d'Orientation, work is never-the-less an important area of human activity in which continuous education has an important contribution to make. In this context, the following publications have been produced;-

- the European Foundation for Management Development's "Management education in the European Community", published by the European Commission,
- Working paper of the Services of the Commission, on "New Perspectives in continuing education and training in an enlarged European Community," and
- Andre Boutin's introductory report, dealing with "Continuous education and training in preparation for new types of work and social development".

Management is one particularly specialised form of vocational education, but even so, in terms of its impact upon economic development generally, it is one which the Community has regarded as an important aspect of continuous education.

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1. Henri Janne and Bertrand Schwartz, op. cit., Section B,II, p.13, paragraphs 11, 12.

"Career-long learning is unanimously recognised as the inevitable trend in education in the long-term, but this recognition is on the whole, relatively recent and its implications are emerging only progressively: they tend towards a redrawing of the boundaries between the world of education and the world of action, towards a new balance between internal and external training. ... Management education can make an important contribution to this necessary rethinking and restructuring. Despite the long history of the Workers' Educational Association,.. the concept of life-long education is not yet widely established in the United Kingdom. The British report underlines that there is still a great need to accustom people at the outset of their careers to the idea that, where appropriate, some form of management ... training is a probable requirement at a later stage. It is true that a management studies component is increasingly being included in courses in various disciplines at first and higher degree level, but the problem of planning the development of a manager over a career spanning possibly forty years or more has not been adequately tackled".(1)

"... a most important road to management education is the generalisation of innovations in new learning processes aiming at developing adaptive and self-educating individuals. This is emphasised by the recognition of recurrent education as an inevitable trend in the long-term".(2)

"Whereas managers in the 1950s and 1960s were faced with problems for which their basic training in economics/ accounting ... had provided them with a range of tools - albeit insufficient - the same is unlikely to be true for the coming ten years. For the basic problems confronting the corporation and its managers in the future are as likely to be social and political as economic and technological ... The increasing societal demands on the enterprise stem from its very success: as the vehicle of technological innovation it has brought about rising individual prosperity, expectations that the world should continue in this way and demands that society and its institutions grow more and more open.
... Since corporations and managers cannot opt out of this increasingly complex and perplexing world ... the European manager needs an array of skills, and ... a sensitive awareness of the environment in which corporations have to operate ... Throughout his working life there should be developed, in discussion and by agreement with him a phased programme of training and development opportunities extending from recruitment to the 50-year stage in a form of 'education permanente'".(3)

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1. European Foundation for Management Development, "Management education in the European Community", Studies Collection, Education Series No.4, Brussels, 1978, pp.13, 14.
2. European Foundation for Management Development, ibid., p.38.
3. European Foundation for Management Development, ibid., pp.45,46.

The E.E.C. has also become aware that continuous education probably offers the only effective solution to the problems of economic, social and political adjustment which are being created by the enlargement of the European Community to include a wide range of economically, socially and politically disparate countries.

> "There will soon ... be at least five member states in a Community of twelve with a significant rural sector ... characterised by an unstructured labour force (seasonal and family work), under-employment, depopulation, and illiteracy, but also by its strong socio-economic traditions. It is in the context of development strategies for poor rural areas that the potential role of continuing education and training can be best illustrated. Financial intervention in such areas can rapidly reach the limits of efficiency if the rural communities themselves are not ready and prepared to participate in a process of change. The inter-relationship between educational, social, and employment objectives has to be explicit and optimum use made of all available learning resources. New forms of employment and self-generated job creation (for instance by co-operative enterprises in local crafts, agricultural processing or for tourist facilities) take on a more obvious significance and demonstrate the need for mature local initiative".(1)

This working paper goes on to suggest three main strategies for continuing education and training to:-

- tackle the problem of basic adult education and literacy, including 'survival skills' such as those enumerated above,
- prepare the labour force for new forms of work and development,
- help older workers make the difficult transition to retirement, so as to feel useful, purposeful, and able to play an active part in society.(2)

The E.E.C. is very aware that continuous education and training can be the means of helping people adapt to changes in the employment available to them, and can therefore help the Community economy in re-deploying its labour force most effectively, in order to reduce the

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1. Services of the Commission, "New Perspectives in continuing education and training in an enlarged European Community", XII/836/80-E, September 1980, pp.14-15.
2. Services of the Commission, op. cit., pp.15-18.

social distress, hardship and unrest which stems from unemployment, under-employment, and the dread of redundancy. André Boutin has suggested the following ways in which continuous education and training can help in this process of adaptation:-

One is by equipping workers to cope with temporary, part-time, casual, or subcontracted employment occasioned by the growing tendency of industry to lighten its labour overheads by reducing its commitments to the work-force by devising new ways of engaging workers.

Another is by preparing workers for responsible and autonomous work within industry, which has been found, particularly by industrialists in West Germany and Japan, to be more cost-effective than employing a semi-skilled and unskilled work-force, and then being obliged to maintain a large managerial and supervisory staff to ensure the quality of production.

Yet another is by training social workers to take their places in the rapidly expanding tertiary sector of the economy, to serve the needs of young children, the elderly, the handicapped, immigrants, socially-inadequate, etc., in addition people who wish, for ideological reasons, to join communities striving towards the establishment of post-industrial self-sufficient settlements, dedicated to preservation of the environment and low energy consumption, should be helped to do so by providing necessary training. People living in isolated rural areas or regions undergoing economic decline should also receive help in equipping themselves to exercise several occupations concurrently, in line with what has always been common practice in 'regions of difficulty' such as those of North-west Britain, Western Norway, etc.,

People should also be prepared so that they are able to cope with new developments affecting their work and life-style, such as new forms of energy generation, the dissemination of computer technology, biological farming, and the revival of skilled crafts.

People ought to be equipped to undertake small industrial, commercial, or craft enterprises, by providing them with the entrepreneurial and technical skills they require.

They should be guided towards the achievement of greater self-sufficiency, by equipping them to undertake work they require done themselves, such as dress-making, house repairs, car maintenance, etc.

People could also be helped improve the cultural quality of their own lives by engaging in useful but non-profit making enterprises such as amateur dramatic societies, musical events, etc.

Trade circuits should be developed to promote the marketing of goods throughout the Community.

Continuous education and training could also help the development of underdeveloped regions by encouraging self-help projects amongst the inhabitants striving to improve their surroundings and amenities, to revitalise their economy, etc.

It could also help in the development of political structures and parties, trades unions, ecological groups, consumer groups, self-help groups, co-operative enterprises, etc.(1)

So far in this chapter we have been considering the contribution continuous education and training can make to the lives of people throughout their adult lives, strengthening their grasp of basic educational skills, providing them with additional vocational training of various kinds, and demonstrating the Community's cognizance of this.

It remains to show that the Community has also taken account of the need for continuous education to help workers cope with early redundancy or the prospect of retirement, and to help those already retired to cope with loss of their sense of personal value and motivation, and to find new and worthwhile purposes in life.

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1. Andre Boutin, "Continuous Education and Training in Preparation for new types of Work and Social Development", XII/448/80, p.2-16.

Publications relating to this by the Community have included:-

- M.J. Faulkner, "Older workers and the Transition to Retirement", and
- Professor Claude Javeau, "Old Age and Retirement",

both published by the Directorate for Science, Research, Education of the European Commission.

M.J. Faulkner's work has been mainly concerned with the older worker of fifty-five years and above. His general argument is that because employers and government take the view that the potential motivation and work-life of young workers is so much greater, the older worker is neglected. It is assumed the return on initial training or the retraining of a young worker must by definition be greater, whereas Faulkner points out that in future the return on the training of young workers is unlikely to be appreciably more worthwhile, since the present-day technological climate will make it necessary for workers, young and old, to undertake re-training at intervals throughout working life. So, too, he questions the simple assumption that motivation, health, the ability to re-learn, and productivity all decline with advancing age, and points out that the occupation, educational attainment, sex and prevalent levels of stress and anxiety in the individual all have a bearing on his or her potential value at any age.

Demographic trends demonstrate that in most member countries - especially those of Northern Europe with possible exception of Eire, the population will be ageing dramatically over the next twenty years, and so value judgements relating to older workers need to be reviewed. Early retirement, gradual retirement and voluntary retirement may all be attractive to some, particularly if there are some financial incentives or assurances offered. However, workers ought to have some choice in the matter of opting to re-train for continued employment, and some access to guidance, training and education in preparation for

retirement, so as to minimise the risk of premature ageing due to loss of purpose, expectations and self esteem.

> "Without suitable counselling many older people fail to develop or maintain their existing capacities for work and creativity. The resulting rapid ageing associated with isolation and boredom in old age has both a high personal and social cost.
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> The extensive structures for the provision of adult education throughout the Community also offer a considerable potential for both the older worker making the transition to retirement and the officially retired individual. Typically, existing pre-retirement courses are operated through the internal training systems of enterprises or are arranged by specialist organisations in the field".(1)

> "The existing contribution of the adult education system under a variety of forms ... could usefully be extended. The valuable role played by residential education (e.g. The Folk High Schools in Northern Europe), distance learning provision (e.g. the Open University in Britain), and specialist centres of education (L'université du troisième age, etc.,) all offer appropriate models for the broader development of educational opportunities for the retired population. The concept of 'leisure' education would be only one aspect of the potential provision ... for the retired. Preparation for new (voluntary and paid) occupations, the education of the elderly population in the context of general "Community" education, and the exploitation of the abilities and skills of retired workers in relation to the development of new small-scale locally based services and enterprises are all areas for consideration in relation to the education sectors role in this area.
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> The timing, nature and content of courses specifically intended as preparation for retirement also need careful consideration. In conjunction with appropriate counselling provision, structured and informal courses are critical to the older worker's response to redundancy or job loss. The capacity of the training and education system to contact and attract the older worker in these conditions and to provide appropriate advice and instruction, either for the possibility of continuing work or for imminent retirement, needs to be developed. Equally the structure of courses needs to reflect the particular learning needs of the older worker, in particular their need to be involved in course design, the importance of practical instruction and the avoidance of highly structured and disciplined learning systems.
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> The extremely heterogeneous character of older workers' labour market conditions, their needs, their response to employment conditions and their preferences and attitudes to retirement all imply an overriding need for flexibility and

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1. M.J. Faulkner, "Older Workers and the transition to Retirement", Commission of the European Communities Directorate General for Science, Research and Education, Brussels, 1980, p.24, paragraphs 16-17.

> adaptability in the provision of educational and training opportunities for the age group. In so far as early retirement is an optimal solution for the aspirations and needs of many older people the education and training system must be able to respond to the needs that such policies induce. Equally, provision has to be made to allow those older people wishing to continue in some form of active employment to acquire the necessary new skills or to exploit existing aptitudes in order to facilitate their continuing activity in the workforce and contribution to economic life".(1)

In his report on "Old age and retirement", Professor Claude Javeau observed that whereas improved living standards have extended biological life and postponed the on-set of old age, industrial society has advanced the age of retirement, often for reasons of expediency, which tends to make people see themselves as 'old', and be regarded as old by their contemporaries before it is necessary. This is because they see retirement as synonomous with old age, and work as providing the real purpose of life. To complicate this analysis, he recognises the fact that in one occupation a person may be regarded as 'young' at sixty, whereas in another 'old' at thirty-five. Once a person is established to be old, he or she is distanced from the main stream of human life. The society we live in, Javeau asserts, believes in a cult of youth, and regards death as something repugnant and obscene to be ignored. The old, and especially the infirm, are either put out of sight, or else 'distanced from' by being put on a pedestal or transmogrified into 'harmless' - ineffectual and irrelevant - and encouraged to accept a new role of passive recipient of charity. In such ways as these they need no longer appear to have a disturbing aspect - as harbingers of mortality.

When confronted with their new role as "has-beens", some people merely acquiesce, but others refuse to accept this "demotion", and either find alternative paid employment or undertake some form of social service which their new-found leisure makes possible. Peoples'

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1. M.J. Faulkner, op. cit., pp.25-26, paragraphs 18-20.

reactions to retirement depend in part on their temperament, their social background, their skills and educational attainments - and the value of these to society. They also depend upon their initiative and their determination not to be set aside.

There are two official approaches to preparing workers for retirement. The prevalent one is to encourage the older worker to relinquish responsibilities gradually, and learn to accept a happy old age free from worries and with leisure time in which to enjoy various restful pursuits. The "alternative is to offer retired people several new roles entailing acceptance of new responsibilities and a shift from economic to social productivity".(1) ... "The second approach ... offers the potential retired person a new apprenticeship, integrated into a full continuing education process".(2) The older worker is offered some "voluntary form of activity" while at the same time work obligations are reduced; hopefully, in this way, "acclimatising the subject to the idea of working in the interest of the Community".(3)

In much the same way continuous education for retired persons may take two different forms:-

"The first is to endow the more or less enforced leisure of retired persons with a cultural content ... to structure the retired person's time in an interesting way ... But this process is not designed to give retired persons a new status leading to new roles, (simply to) help the retired person to relieve his boredom ... and 'enjoy' retirement".(4)

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1. Professor Claude Javeau, "Old Age and Retirement", Directorate-General for Research, Science and Education, Brussels, March 1981, p.9.
2. Professor Claude Javeau, op. cit., p.10.
3. Professor Claude Javeau, loc. cit., p.10.
4. Professor Claude Javeau, ibid. p.11.

> "The aim of the second is to introduce retired persons to new social roles ... based on the retired person's potential versatility: social work in the community, teaching assistance, material services to the community, political management, cultural organisation, etc. ... The aim is to enable them to make the most of ... (their) experience through continuing education founded on this approach. Instead of being "assisted" in old age by "cultural officials smoothing the way for him, the retired person would acquire new status as a socially productive being. This would mainly involve placing his experience and availability at the service of the community - neighbourhood groups, voluntary associations, schools, social services. In this context, a pension could be regarded as a new type of wage and does not become a "rest allowance" until the old person believes it is really time for him to withdraw".(1)

It is evident from the foregoing that the Community has explored a whole range of human conditions in which appropriate provisions for continuous education could, and ought to, make a valuable contribution, by helping people find pride, purpose, fulfilment and creative satisfaction in themselves, as well as discovering the means to overcome their social political and economic problems, and to overcome the limitations imposed by their environments.

We have also seen, in previous descriptions of existing provisions for further, higher and adult education in the countries under scrutiny, how some limited provisions already exist to meet many of these needs, but rarely in the full comprehensive range in any one place, and rarely available to all categories of people - the disabled, the isolated or thoseworking unsocial hours for example. This is why, to be truly worthy of the name, continuous education must meet all needs and aspirations, must provide comprehensive provisions to suit all abilities and attainments, and above all, must be available to all people as a "right" - whether it be the aged, the retired, the disabled, the unemployed or the housebound, as well as the fit, active and employed. Although a great deal of lip-service has been played to this

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1. Professor Claude Javeau, op. cit., p.12.

ideal, it is clear that, in a period of economic recession, the pressure is on governments to reduce, not increase, educational provisions, and this is why the Plan Europe 2000 report's advocacy of autonomous learning with effective counselling is particularly appropriate, not only because mature people respond best to choosing what they need to learn and how best to approach it, but also because such responsible learning, actively engaged in, is so much more economical to provide and so much more cost-effective than the conventional, closely-supervised and passive classroom teaching with which most of us are familiar.

It would seem that the biggest obstacle to the adoption of continuous education as the norm is the apprehension, on the part of most West European governments about the costs entailed, and not the resistance of either the educators themselves, nor of members of the general public - who have responded most enthusiastically to the establishment of such institutions as the Open University in the recent past.

To conclude, continuous education can hold the key to providing all individuals, at every stage of their development, with the guidance they need to live enriched personal lives, and to go on making a useful contribution to society throughout their lives. As well as meeting the needs of individuals in this way, continuous education can also meet the urgent needs of the economy and society of Western Europe countries. The countries are searching for the means of equipping not only their young people, but also people at all stages of their lives, to cope with economic and technological changes and attendant social changes, which threaten to disrupt their economies, and to damage the fabric of their societies, as well as destroying the happiness and well-being of the people in society. All these various changes are taking place at such an accelerating rate that education must be life-long and continuous -

so that individuals can continue to be re-educated regularly as and when they feel the need of it. Governments can only provide such continuous education if it does not take too much of their resources, and it is for this reason that responsible-autonomous education is necessary, because it would prove so much more cost-effective than the present-day adult, higher and further education systems, and yet provide a more comprehensive service.

Above all, as well as meeting the urgent needs of individuals, societies, economies, and governments, in the various European countries, continuous education is able to offer the only effective solution available to those who wish to see the economic and political integration of Europe achieved in a single generation. It is reasonable to ask at this stage why the matter should be so urgent. Why is it that Europe cannot afford to evolve to unity in its own good time, or simply continue as it always has done? The answer is that Europe is in danger, because of her divisions which lead to internal rivalries and uneconomic small-scale production units, of falling behind technologically and in the competitive world trade markets dominated by such rivals as the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., Japan. She is also under threat from emerging industrial regions like those of Taiwan, which can under-cut her in the market place. There is a time coming when her sources of energy and cheap raw materials, and her export markets for manufactures in the Third World, will decline. This is because countries such as those of South America, Africa or Southern Asia will begin to consume more of their own energy and raw materials, because they will prefer to process the said raw materials, and supply both their own domestic and some export markets with their own manufactured goods, thereby reducing their imports and increasing their exports. When this time comes the overseas markets for European manufacturers will shrink considerably. The only solution for Europe will be to make her own goods highly competitive, by

rationalising her own natural resources and sources of energy, and by integrating her industries so that she can offset her comparatively high labour costs by efficiency and economies of scale, and so that each region of Europe is able to concentrate upon producing goods, or providing services, in which it has some comparative advantage.

From an economic standpoint, Europe needs the greater negotiating strength enjoyed by today's superpowers, in order to provide her with favourable bargaining status in world trade; and from the political standpoint Europe needs the "muscle" to enable her to press forward her needs and special interests in the political negotiating arena. Whereas a strong united Europe can look after the economic and political interests of her citizens, a weak disunited Europe can be elbowed aside and left to degenerate into a region of small under-developed countries - or worse - to come under the economic or political oppression of some larger country. Bertrand Russell argued that the world would eventually have to be united, quite possibly "through the superior power of some one nation or group of nations" over the others.(1) However, if Europeans believe in the value of their own culture, values, and civilisation, they will not wish to see them decline in influence, and lose any hope of making a future contribution to world affairs. It has been considerations such as these which have added a sense of urgency to the efforts of those dedicated to the unification of Europe, since they also believe in what Europe has to offer the world.

Only continuous education appears to offer the means by which Europe's entire population can be influenced in a generation or so, making it possible for Europe to maintain its technological pre-eminence, to train the administrators, scientists, technologists it will need in facing up to the challenges imposed by ongoing integration, and for Europeans to master multilingualism, a skill which will be essential in

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1. Bertrand Russell, "New hopes for a changing world", (1951) p.77.

a united Europe.

At present many of the necessary amenities required to provide such a system already exist in some regions of Europe, but rarely do they exist in an integrated and comprehensive system in any one region. To make such a system universal and effective it would need to establish the following principles:-

1. Compulsory education has to be seen, not as a complete and final education for life, but as a preliminary stage in preparing adults so that they are able to receive their subsequent education at stages throughout their life, and to make the most of their opportunities.
2. To achieve this it must teach people how to undertake their own personal learning programme with the minimum of guidance or supervision.
3. To ensure that education provided is relevant and responsive to the needs of regions as well as individuals, Educational authorities should be regional, not national or central, so that local conditions and needs receive primary consideration.
4. In addition, education, in order to be responsive to the needs of its region, requires effective market consultation and the means for making quick innovations. To be responsive to changing vocational, social and personal needs as they affect the individual at different stages in life, careful consultation and research is required to ensure that education really is continuous.
5. European authorities must be prepared to implement legal rights through legislation comparable to Faures' Loi d'Orientation in France during 1968, by which all citizens are assured of access to education and the support necessary to enable them to avail themselves of it. It must be education or training of a kind the person needs or wishes, and guidance or counselling must be available to guide their choice. In turn the citizen, to earn these rights, must

be under some minimum obligations to society.

Only with provisions such as these can Europeans adapt effectively, rapidly and continuously as their careers and lifestyles come under threat. Unless such opportunities are readily available, Europeans will be unable to keep pace with professional and technological changes which threaten their livelihoods. If this were to happen, even greater social, economic and political inequalities would emerge in Europe than exist at present! If the gap between well-educated rich professional, and influential technologists, on the one hand, and poor, ill-informed and apathetic masses on the other, is allowed to widen, then social alienation, and with it crime and violent conflict, will be a feature of future society even more than it is at present, and the democratic institutions which we profess to value will, themselves, be in jeopardy.

The present educational system only equips a limited sector of the rising generation to initiate one or other kind of changes or innovations, through political reform, administration, management, science or technology, etc. It depends upon these potential leaders to rise up through the existing system until they reach positions of power - and are able to institute necessary changes. But the process of advancement to positions of authority can be slow and frustrating, and a great deal of initiative and innovative flair is usually 'crushed out' along the way. The majority are educated to take up a passive role in society, and it is between these two groups that alienation is almost inevitable. For reasons already outlined, this system is too slow, and, under pressure from accelerated changes, it is likely to prove increasingly ineffectual as well.

Continuous education can reach and influence people who are already in authority, and have already acquired relevant knowledge and experience and proved their personal qualities for the tasks involved. It is these people, as well as the rising generation, who need to be re-educated if

a rapid response to change is required. Furthermore, for democracy to survive under the disruptive powers of change, the ordinary citizen of today's Europe needs to be given the opportunity to become responsible, well-informed and actively involved in shaping, or at least monitoring, the changes going on, through the democratic institutions for participation. At least he needs to be able to cope with these changes at the personal level, and here again, only continuous education can reach him, and ensure that he becomes a participating partner or a willing accomplice in the changes, instead of an active saboteur, a drop-out, or a person broken because he cannot cope with them.

It is for reasons such as these that the early development of provisions for continuous education may be regarded as a major part of the role by which formal education can contribute to European unity.

Part Three: The Progress made through Formal Education.

CHAPTER XV: CONCLUSIONS.

This final part of the thesis will seek conclusions regarding the "Role of Formal Education in the promotion of European Unity" through answers to the following questions - How far has Europe progressed so far on the road towards unity? Why has formal education so far contributed so little? What obstacles must formal education overcome if it is to be effective, and what can formal education do as its distinctive contribution to European unity in future?

However, it is relevant here to question the underlying assumption that European unity is a good and desirable thing. One part of the answer has already been offered in Chapter 1, where it has been suggested that a process of confederation of nation states into economic and political unions which is already in evidence is probably the next stage in the evolution of human social organisation. This process, already anticipated by the establishment of the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R., will hopefully and logically culminate in World Federal Government. This, however, is only to suggest that union is 'probable', perhaps even inevitable, but why good? Possible answers include the following.

Man's capacity for destruction is now so highly developed that he threatens the survival of his own species and that of all life, unless he can arrive at a formula for peaceful co-existance with his fellow men. The Union of European States, historically a major area of conflict, would be an important step in that direction. Further benefits which could accrue from European union, provided that union made possible the large-scale pooling of human skill and natural resources and provided the political will to do so was forthcoming, could include contributions to all the major world problems such as population increase, under-development, pollution, the energy shortage, and diminishing natural resources. This can be argued on the grounds

that, historically, Europe has led the world in scientific technology, despite her disunity and its enervating effects. If Europe were to lead the way, then in the long run it would be for world union to make man's future secure.

From a more narrow and practical viewpoint, European union may well be Europe's only hope of preserving its own civilisation and ideals. The individual states of Europe are already too small and weak to be of much consequence, or to exercise economic or political negotiating power in world affairs. Few of them could defend themselves adequately in the event of conventional war. A united Europe would be economically and politically consequential in the world, and be capable of maintaining effective independent defences - because its co-ordinated resources would potentially be so much greater than those of the small nations of today, which are only just learning to work together.

Such arguments are for the most part reasonable, non-controversial and self-evident, but all too often they fail to convince or change the minds of people, because their opinions are based not upon reason, but upon sentiments. There is a close parallel between the appeal of internationalism and that of religious belief, for instance, an early Hollywood film about the life of St. Bernadette was prefaced by the warning:-

> "If you believe in God no explanation is necessary -
> if not, no explanation is possible".

What might appear at first sight to be an evasion was, in fact, no more than a statement of the true situation. In the same spirit the pro-European, while acknowledging that counter-arguments exist, must insist that the unification of Europe can only be a good thing. Therefore this thesis is based, ultimately, upon that assumption, which brings us to the question - How far has Europe progressed along that road?

Of the two leading European institutions, both established in the post-war era, and with potential to provide the nucleus of a united Europe - only one, the European Economic Community (E.E.C.) has retained this promise. The Council of Europe on the other hand, while continuing to make a valuable contribution to the growth of European consciousness, was rendered politically impotent at an early stage, and consequently has not been able to make a substantial contribution to European integration.

The Rome Treaties, which established the E.E.C., were a victory for the functionalists over the federalists. The federalists advocated the early establishment of a federal government, and if they had prevailed, there might have been a risk that such a premature union would have been unable to survive some of the crises which have confronted post-war Europe. On the other hand the functionalist approach, in which time has been allowed for the education of public opinion, and for the institutions of a United Europe to evolve, progressing slowly from economic towards political union, has not fulfilled early expectations either. In the early post-war era the horrible consequences of a Europe which had been disunited were uppermost in the public mind, and the economic prosperity of the sixties encouraged an optimistic approach towards the improvement of society and the establishment of a united Europe which would help to secure future peace, and provide a just society for its people. Had this social climate endured, progress would have continued rapidly, as the functionalists had anticipated, towards monetary union and a stronger European parliament. Instead, the desire for union, and the optimism of more prosperous times, alike, have faded in the deepening recession of the seventies and eighties, and in their place extreme political ideologies and illiberal social attitudes have revived, as disillusioned people search for some scapegoats to blame, and harsh remedies to cure their misfortunes. This has reinforced

the attitudes of those who defend national sovereignty, or seek the break away of small racial or religious minorities from established countries, or nurture racial or religious prejudice, all of which serve to retard the work of those who aspire to bring about the integration of Europe.

Throughout this period economic integration has progressed slowly, but more radical changes, such as the proposed unification of the monetary system, have been postponed, joint economic projects have been shelved, and labour mobility has been slowed down because unemployment is rife throughout the region.

Political integration, however, has been held back far more by the conscious hardening of attitudes on the part of national politicians, who, while welcoming the economic benefits of cautious economic integration, have resisted any projected constitutional changes which, by strengthening the European government, are seen by them as threatening their national autonomy.

Although since 1979 the European Parliament has become a democratically-elected body, any attempt to endow it with real legislative authority has been resisted, so that it remains a purely advisory body with some power to express its disapproval by withholding the Community Budget. Under the E.E.C. constitution, therefore, it is the Commission which frames policies and the Council of Ministers who recommend their implementation, but still it is left to individual national ministers to carry back these recommendations, and hopefully to encourage national governments to implement them as and when they see fit. It is little wonder that in education, as in all the provinces with which government is concerned, progress is so often slow, inadequate or piecemeal. This not only has serious implications for the future progress of European integration generally, but also for the future contribution which formal education can make in the furtherance

of it. This is relevant to the question to which an answer is now sought. Why has formal education so far contributed so little to European unity?

It has already been noted that weakness on the part of European Government makes it ineffectual in reforming European education generally. Whatever policies the E.E.C. has put forward therefore, and they have been numerous, implementation has depended either upon national education authorities, or upon direct action by teachers concerned for Europe taking it upon themselves to implement policies at school or classroom level. An example of the former situation has been the institution of pilot schemes for the reception of immigrant children in the schools of many West European countires, while an example of the latter has been the evolution of teacher-evolved syllabuses in European Studies in the U.K., made possible by the initiatives of teachers' organisations including E.A.T.(U.K.) and S.E.R.C.

Not all E.E.C. recommendations have received this kind of support, however, indeed the U.K. has actually cut-back pre-primary education facilities in flagrant disregard for both E.E.C. recommendations and the current trends in other member countries. It would prove extremely difficult for the E.E.C. to prevail upon countries to undertake major structural reforms in education, particularly if these run contrary to current political philosophical thinking; and yet, if a policy for harmonisation of secondary school provisions throughout the Community were to be effective, national interests could not be allowed to intervene.

In the absence, therefore, of statutory powers to enforce such policies, the European authorities are obliged to depend heavily on the motivation of teachers. Consequently, while the contributions of some local authorities, particular schools and individual teachers have been substantial, the overall achievement of formal education has been

predictably lacking in consistency and continuity. Whatever approach to the role of formal education in the promotion of European unity is considered, there has been inconsistency in the way it has been undertaken from country to country, but also from one education authority to another, and, most strikingly, from school to school - where the enthusiasms of individual headmasters have stood out from the disinterest of the majority. Educationally less acceptable has been the consequential lack of continuity - so that a pupil obliged to transfer from one school to another can miss out entirely on this important aspect of their education. A few arbitrary examples must suffice to illustrate these points. Whereas secondary pupils in the Netherlands all receive tuition in English, and the academically more-able several European languages, it is quite possible for pupils in the U.K. to drop all language work from their studies at an early stage of their secondary course. Similarly, European secondary school children are expected to be taught most curricular subjects with a "European dimension", while their British counterparts are taught European studies in some schools and under certain circumstances, and not in others. Again pupils in the restricted catchment of the Ingatestone Anglo-European School can receive the privileges of an international education, whereas those in other parts of Essex or elsewhere in the U.K. do not enjoy comparable opportunities.

It has been demonstrated in the main body of this thesis that the various approaches identified as making up the role of formal education are rendered most effective if they are undertaken in conjunction with one another. Yet Western European education as a whole is so dominated by the Humanist tradition - which stresses the value of an academic approach - that it is extremely difficult for schools to adopt the multidisciplinary approach that would be needed. This is demonstrated most forcibly in the European schools - where the narrow academic

curriculum deprives the most academically-able young people of the enlightened understanding that ought to come with knowledge, in order to maintain inordinately high standards of academic excellence. In contrast, the much broader curriculum and extra-mural activities provided at the United World Colleges seem to be calculated to make better internationalists than those of the European schools will make Europeans, even though it is almost impossible to test this hypothesis.

Returning to the matter of the different policies operating in Europe and the U.K. for teaching children about Europe, the mainland policy of investing all the subjects in the curriculum with a "European Dimension" is at least as open to question as the other.

Not all teachers can be European in outlook, and so many must be unwilling, or merely insufficiently well-informed, to invest their already crowded subject syllabuses with the required dimension. Even supposing all the teachers were well motivated and qualified to implement the "European dimension", the result would be a number of separate unco-ordinated fragments which could never provide a complete and balanced coverage of the subject area. Therefore, while every child is likely to learn something about Europe at all stages of his or her school career, such haphazard presentation is unlikely to have a great impact on his or her thinking.

The U.K. approach to European Studies as a separate subject area also has its own shortcomings. The new subject has been introduced into an already overcrowded school curriculum and consequently, like many peripheral subjects, has been made a low-prestige, under resourced, "Cinderella" subject. It is used as a "filler subject" on the timetables of academically-weak pupils in place of a language, or taught in conjunction with a language for less-able students, or as a kind of 'liberal studies' subject for sixth form students. Because it shares much of its subject matter with other Social Sciences, lacks a

distinctive methodology of its own, and, by virtue of its high ideological content, is open to the accusation of indoctrinating rather than educating, it is likely to remain a minority subject.

In both situations, then, the approaches adopted have met with only limited success, apart from the work of some exceptional schools in which teachers are particularly enthusiastic about the European cause.

Another weakness in the concept of European Studies arises from failure on the part of the main European organisations to agree on the appropriate subject matter. Whereas the E.E.C. is concerned with teaching children about the problems which have confronted the Community, and what it has achieved, the Council of Europe, as well as such national information agencies as S.E.R.C. in the U.K. and C.E.V.N.O. in the Netherlands, all advocate that European children should be taught about the entire geographical continent, and encouraged to develop a world perspective.

Anyone reading the impressive statistics of C.B. in the U.K. or P.A.D. in West Germany, in particular, concerning numbers of pupils who engage in visits and exchanges to other European countries each year, might suppose that this reflected the enthusiasm felt for Europe by schools and teachers, and resulted in a growing European consciousness on the part of pupils. But if we reflect that, ever since Britain and France signed the Entente Cordiale in 1902, thousands of English children, in particular, have visited our nearest neighbour, and yet retained a characteristic patronising, mildly contemptuous, attitude towards the French and towards all foreigners until comparatively recent years, we may not feel so sure. So many visits, even today, are entered into in much the same spirit as the eighteenth century 'grand tours' were engaged in by the sons of the nobility; to broaden their outlook, and enhance their cultural perceptions. Far from achieving

even these limited objectives, or helping English children to identify with Europe, such visits have all too often merely served to strengthen established prejudices or reinforce preconceived notions of national superiority. Even when visits are undertaken with the narrow objective of improving foreign language competence, they are often ineffectual. There seems to be some justification for the observation made by Monsieur Raymond Hichel that, on the basis of his personal observations, arrived at from the visits by children from the Eastern Borderlands of France to West Germany or England, usually for two weeks, such visits tend either "to be too short or too long".(1) By this Monsieur Hichel was suggesting that a fortnight was often too short to accomplish a durable or worthwhile objective, or, in many cases, too long because insufficient care and thought had gone into planning the visit. Visits need to be planned and organised effectively, with pupils well "briefed" in advance to make the best possible use of the time available, with well-defined and realistic objectives to work towards, and, when the visit is over, careful consideration of what has been achieved is also necessary on return to school. This being so, visits can be an extremely arduous and demanding activity, so much so that the work involved for the pupils or for the supervising teacher almost outweighs the educational benefits derived from the visit. It is significant that the French Government, which insists upon stringent preparations and well-defined objectives as a pre-condition of supporting a visit, has very few applicants for support. This is not to imply that teachers are too casual, or that visits are educationally worth-less, but rather that it is very easy to over-estimate the benefits pupils derive, in terms either of improved language skills or greater insight into other European cultures and ways of life.

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1. Monsieur Raymond Hichel, Directeur de C.R.D.R. Strasbourg.

Regarding textbook revision, there is little doubt that some kind of surveillance is necessary in order to ensure that new textbooks do not simply perpetuate old hatreds and prejudices, inaccurate stereotypes, or inaccurate and outdated information, by carrying them over from earlier textbooks, thereby transmitting them to a new generation of school children. The contribution to this objective from organisations like the Georg Eckert Institute has been considerable. In collaboration with the Council of Europe, the E.E.C. and U.N.E.S.C.O., the institute has also encouraged the publication of books on educational methodology as well as textbooks, and has worked to shape the thinking of educationalists, authors and publishers.

Even so, this does not appear to be, potentially, a major approach through which formal education can promote European unity. In the last analysis, the practical achievements of the textbook revision movement can only be surmised, since no objective measurement is practicable. The value of textbook revision as a means of promoting European unity is limited, ultimately, by the fact that, just as religious faith is quite a different thing from religious knowledge, so too, Europe consciousness is quite different from knowledge of Europe. The former is inspirational, "caught and not taught" from one's teachers, peers, and relatives, whereas knowledge can be acquired from textbooks or through class lessons. Therefore the revision of textbooks may not, after all, have a direct influence upon the thinking of the present generation of school children about the value of European unity; and it may be that money and time would be better spent in motivating the teachers of Europe who have considerable power in transmitting their enthusiasms to the rising generation.

A similar argument may also be applied to assessing the effectiveness of the agencies concerned with the dissemination of educational information about Europe and progress towards integration.

Not only are the main international organisations, notably the E.E.C. and the Council of Europe, engaged in this work, but there are also national and regional organisations. The various national branches of the Council of European Education (C.E.E.) have undertaken co-ordination of regional and local groups at national level. Many of these regional and local bodies have made a valuable contribution by seeking out gaps in the national information services, and in doing so have acquired expertise in these specialised fields. Thus, for instance, the Institute of European Education at St. Martins, Lancaster, has gone beyond its original mandate, by taking up research into language teaching, and developing gradedlanguage tests in several tongues, which although originally designed to serve the needs of schools in Lancashire and Cumbria, clearly have a far wider relevance. Similarly, the Sussex European Research Council has already acquired a national reputation for its curricular research and consultancy work on behalf of the Examination Boards seeking to introduce European Studies Examinations, a contribution similar to that of C.E.V.N.O. in the Netherlands to the initial and in-service training of teachers in developing a European Dimemsion.

The effectiveness of these agencies is moderated through the work of teachers and authors who retail the information. In the context of language teaching and European Studies the success of the teachers in turn may be limited by the restraints imposed upon their work by school curricula and subject syllabuses. The organisers can only measure their success by the number of enquiries and requests for their services they receive. They have no way of measuring the impact of their work upon young people. Their efforts are not in dispute, but there must be some doubt as to whether or not much of their effort is not dissipated in wasteful duplication and competition, and whether this could not be remedied best by devoting greater attention to the teachers who are at

the "cutting edge" of education - presenting the knowledge and ideas to young people. Only in this way can these services be assured of greater success.

The shortcomings of the existing international, and European, schools and colleges merit examination at two levels; generally, and in relation to particular categories of school and college.

The entire genre is open to criticism on the grounds that they are only available to a very select clientele, and that, for the most part, they are very academic in their approach. Therefore they are not likely to offer the education most appropriate to the majority of Europeans, and so, while they may successfully nurture future leaders and intellectuals, they cannot contribute much to the nurture of European consciousness amongst Europe's ordinary people.

For instance, European Schools mainly serve the children of officials working with the E.E.C., Euratom, or other European institutions, even though they admit a minority of other applicants from the local community. Because the European School curriculum, and the exacting European Baccalaureate Examination for which candidates are prepared, are highly academic, they could never be expanded to serve the needs of a much wider clientele, nor could their expertise provide a model for wider application in the State Schools of Europe.

Similar observations apply even more in the case of the College of Europe in Bruges, or the European University Institute in Florence, for both of these institutions are post-graduate establishments - and as such serve the needs of an even more select graduate minority. They are designed to cater for Europe's future leaders and thinkers, through whom they can possibly have a profound influence upon the majority of Europeans, but only indirectly.

In the area of promoting academic mobility, formal education has made only scant progress. What little has been achieved has been in

securing concessions for the mutual recognition of one anothers' university entry qualifications, first degrees, and a few professional qualifications, between member countries of the Community, thereby facilitating study and research, or the practice of professional skills, in countries other than one's own.

But the overall failure of formal education to extend the mobility of teachers at all levels, researchers or students, to a more acceptable scale for a Europe which is supposedly moving towards integration, is attributable to several factors. These include ineffective and even obstructive administrative precedures which are involved in the processing of applications, the inequality of the social security provisions available to teachers, researchers or students between one country and another, and a general absence of guidance to be made available to students or teachers who may be contemplating study or work in another European country. There is a handbook for the guidance of students, but none as yet for teachers or researchers. What seems more disturbing, however, is apparent prejudice on the part of education officials involved at policy-making and administrative levels. Prejudice seems to lie behind apparent reluctance to recognise courses of study or research undertaken elsewhere, a tendency to treat service abroad as "broken service", and to make it a justification for lower rates of promotion or reduced pension rights. On arrival in other countries foreign students and members of staff are rarely given help in 'settling in', but are left to cope as best they can, unless help comes from an unofficial source.

Although in theory the machinery for academic mobility is already operative, in practice , the number of participating teachers, researchers and students is not increasing in a way which might be expected and yet, unless a high level of academic mobility can be achieved, it is difficult tovisualise how unrestricted mobility of labour

throughout the Community can ever become a reality, since academic mobility provides the medium through which potentially skilled workers, in the capacity of students and researchers, acquire their basic mobility skills, and learn to acclimatise themselves to living and working in other European countries.

Finally, there has been a comparable shortfall between the 'pious wishes' expressed at Community level for the future extension of tertiary and continuous education provisions, and the practical achievements at national level. Failure of national governments to establish a comprehensive system of tertiary and continuous education, such as is needed to meet the educational needs of people in all stages of life learning to cope with a Europe in transition, may be attributed to the impotence of the Council of Europe, or the European Parliament, to go forward with implementing their own recommendations. As a result there are various incomplete and unco-ordinated provisions which have grown up in response to demands over a period of years in most countries - leaving serious gaps and inconsistencies from place to place. In no place is there a full range of provisions to which all citizens have access under the law, with financial support for those who need it assured. In the U.K. an excellent system of tertiary education has grown up, but is being cut back on the grounds of declining population and demand, at a time when they should have instead been reoriented in order to serve contemporary needs for continuous education. In the Netherlands tertiary education comprises two quite disparate systems - academic and technical higher education on the one hand, professional and vocational education on the other. Between these there is only a minimal mobility, and provision for adult education appears to be limited. In neither of these countries are there plans to expand these provisions, or to extend the legal right of access to the majority of people, in the foreseeable future. Whereas the main

deficiency of the U.K. system lies in its declining accessibility, that of the Dutch system lies in its illiberality and hierarchical structure, in which those who "missed out" when young have difficulties in securing a "second chance". Open University provisions in both countries may represent the nucleus for growth in continuous education in the future.

In West Germany the "Second educational way", which incorporates provisions for covering the fees of those already in employment, represents real progress towards continuous education. Although the system as it stands is primarily designed to serve the needs of young adults and displays a vocational bias, there are still more circuitous routes for older adults seeking to re-enter further and higher education, and it is possible to gain access to the humanities and social science courses as well as technical and vocational ones. In France under the Loi d'Orientation of 1968 and the Industrial Acts of 1971 there was a real attempt to establish Education Permanente, including a statutory right entitling all citizens to avail themselves of additional education or training. However, the deepening economic recession since 1973 has led to an undue emphasis being laid upon vocational training, so that the provisions are limited, and seem designed more to meet the needs of the economy than those of individuals in search of fulfilment. Courses are frequently short, purely vocational, and provided at the workplace. Only if the employer offers a worker no facilities is that worker allowed, subject to government approval, to choose the kind of studies he or she wishes. Such limited provisions fall far short of continuous education, even though the legal entitlements lay the foundation for such a system.

None, then of the countries reviewed have anything approaching a system of continuous education. None provides amenities to serve the needs of older workers facing imminent retirement, or seeking useful,

fulfilled lives in retirement. Despite the findings of several research projects that such provisions are economically, as well as socially, desirable, industry persists in the shortsighted policy of discarding older workers rather than taking responsibility for them. In the long-term interest of society as a whole, the 'real' costs of neglecting and demoralising older people far exceed the cost of extending worthwhile educational options to them which cater for their needs. Such proposals are therefore economically sound as well as humane. Formal education has so far failed to live up to the challenges of the day for continuous education, and so is losing the opportunity to make an important contribution to European integration, by helping to equip Europeans for all the changes involved.

This brings us to the final question to which an answer is required - What obstacles must formal education overcome if it is to be effective and what can formal education do as its distinctive contribution to European unity in future?

The failure of formal education to achieve more so far, cannot be attributed wholly to the teachers themselves. The root cause has already been noted - for neither of the great European institutions has been permitted to develop as a unifying political force in the manner which is necessary, as a result of the resistance put up by the defenders of national sovereignty. In particular the European Parliament of the E.E.C., which could by now have been a most effective federal legislature, is devoid of power to call upon national governments to implement even the most general policies for education, or for that matter, for any other aspect of society. Without such co-ordination of the various national education policies, the teachers of Europe have had to develop their own initiatives for Europe without any kind of imaginative leadership to sustain or co-ordinate them. Nor has any sort of financial aid been forth-coming for the purpose of

reforming or harmonising the various national education systems, so that they can be better equipped for the task of promoting European unity.

The help and encouragement given to teachers by the International Organisations of Europe has, on the other hand, been substantial, and many teachers, using that help, have conducted powerful, if rather isolated, campaigns for the promotion of European unity. Sadly, however, such efforts all too often run the risk of being neutralised by the inertia of the education authorities through which the teachers practice their profession. Without practical support at national level to ensure that co-operation and liaison between education authorities, schools and teachers becomes the general rule throughout Europe, the work done by isolated schools and teachers goes unpublicised, and can have little or no impact upon the rest of Europe's teaching profession.

Lack of harmony between the various education systems found in Europe cannot be rectified without the development of an overall education policy at federal level to co-ordinate the efforts made -and this lack of co-ordination will remain an obstacle to co-operation between European teachers as long as it continues. At present any efforts for harmonisation have to be undertaken piecemeal and at national level, and in ways appropriate to the distinctive national systems. Such a process is inevitably slow and ineffective. Teacher mobility is made very difficult, as much by the differences which exist in the terms of service and acceptable qualifications in the various countries, as by the language barriers which occur, and yet such obstacles could be removed relatively easily, if the initiative came from federal government.

The conclusion must be that before formal education is able to make the kind of systematic and co-ordinated contribution to European integration that will be required, it will be necessary that sufficient

power should be conferred upon the European Parliament to enable it to lay down policy guidelines for European education as well as for other areas of European society which require harmonisation. Only then will it be possible for the European authorities to undertake, first the reform and harmonisation of the various education systems, and then, secondly, it will be possible to develop the work done through the various functions identified as making up the unifying role of formal education into a single effective, and well-co-ordinated programme designed to further the process of European integration.

Such a programme ought to include the following elements, designed to accelerate the integration process and promote European consciousness amongst Europeans.

First, all national governments should be required to introduce legal and financial guarantees in order to ensure that all Europeans were assured education appropriate to their circumstances, needs and wishes on a life-long basis. Such a guarantee would probably be conditional upon the citizen meeting certain fundamental obligations to society, since life-long education could not be allowed to be abused by "professional students", who might seek to avoid making any contribution in return. Compulsory education could well be shortened, and certainly the crowded school curriculum of the present day secondary school might well be reduced if it could be assumed that it now existed solely to provide the foundation stage for life-long education. The existing tertiary institutions might require some re-orientation and extension, but for the most part existing schools, colleges and universities all over Europe would be incorporated into the new structure of education.

Secondly, another legal obligation should be placed upon National governments to ensure that mobility of pupils attending primary and secondary schools, made necessary because of parental changes of domicile

and employment, should be made easier, and that the moves ought not to jeopardise the subsequent educational and employment prospects of these children. At the same time local needs and tastes ought to be accommodated, as they are in the U.K., where each school exercises some discretion over its choice of curriculum and subject syllabuses.

Closely related to this safeguard, there should also be some legal obligation upon the national governments to discriminate positively in favour of school teachers, and researchers, students as well as teachers in tertiary education, moving freely within the European Community in the course of their careers. Such a suggestion is not a contradiction of the earlier argument in favour of mobility being achieved slowly by empirical means, but it is an acknowledgement of the need for some changes in law, possibly, in order to ensure that initial resistance to change can be broken down in order to facilitate the national growth of mobility.

Academic mobility and the extension of facilities for life-long education will provide a framework within which educationalists can implement the various other approaches which go to make up the role of formal education in the promotion of European unity.

Thirdly, the harmonisation of academic and professional qualifications at all levels would be accomplished most effectively, not by formal equivalence agreements, but by the establishment of European Academic Boards empowered to determine the professional qualifications and entry standards, to govern school-leaving certificates, university entry qualifications, degree qualifications, etc. These Boards would aim to establish universally-acceptable standards for the academic or professional qualifications they regulated throughout Europe, but like the Council for National Academic Awards, C.N.A.A., in the U.K., they would not interfere in matters of academic or professional contents or approaches which did not constitute serious departures from the standards

of study they were intended to maintain. The authority of these European Academic Boards would need to be upheld by Federal Government legislation, since otherwise national governments might try to delay attempts to harmonise the whole range of professional and academic qualifications, and so obstruct the process by which academic, and, through it, labour mobility generally, was likely to be achieved. In each instance the legal intervention needs to be minimal, to avoid being obtrusive or threatening local tastes or needs, simply seeking to establish guidelines within which the national governments can work in their own way. Without this minimal legislation it is unlikely that formal education will do more than continue to have a slow impact, whereas given the appropriate authority and legal backing, the various approaches identified as making up the role of education in the promotion of European unity are likely to be undertaken much more effectively.

Another valuable unifying measure would be to establish a policy by which language teaching resources all over Europe were concentrated upon teaching just one of the three major European languages - English, French or German, rather than being dissipated upon teaching a wider range of subjects. Already many Europeans speak one of these tongues as their first or second language, so that rapid results could be achieved in Europe. Furthermore, these languages are the ones already in widespread use elsewhere in the world. More ought to be done to cater for the whole range of students, including the less-able or the handicapped. Furthermore, academic and professional courses at all levels should include a language study element, so that plumbers or builders as well as teachers and doctors, could be competent to practise their skills in several language areas. Teachers of language at all levels should be encouraged to undertake research in teaching methods in the course of their careers, since they alone are equipped to make a

valuable contribution by developing and evaluating new methods of transmitting language skills. Such efforts, however concentrated or intensified, can only be successful if Europeans are better motivated to speak one anothers' languages.

Language teaching ought to be made into a more prestigous area of education. Language competence might well be made a more important element in most academic and professional qualifications, and employers in all fields would do well to take the possession of language skills and foreign work experience into greater account in appointing new staff or promoting their existing staff. Opportunities for cheaper, faster, subsidised travel ought to be extended within Europe, and inducements ought to be devised to encourage Europeans not only to work in other European countries, but also to share one anothers' cultural and social activities, and to consult, collaborate and co-operate within the areas of their professional expertise - whether at skilled or unskilled levels - with their counterparts in other parts of Europe. Such policies would not only raise their levels of motivation to learn one anothers' languages, but they would also help improve mutual understanding, and encourage the growth of a European identity amongst them. All employers likely to benefit from such developments, and in particular from the improvement of language skills, could be encouraged to promote them and support them financially, thereby strengthening and advancing the movement towards mobility, understanding and bi-lingualism in Europe.

As regards European Studies, the shortcomings and advantages of teaching the subject as it is undertaken in the United Kingdom, or through an additional dimension in each of the other established school subjects as advocated in the mainland of Europe, have already been analysed. The logical conclusion seems to be that both approaches are required in order to achieve effective teaching of such studies. All

school timetables could devote a limited amount of time to learning about Europe, but in addition, a European dimension could be included in all subjects where it is relevant or has implications for the subject. The European dimension should be an integral part of each subject syllabus, and not depend for its inclusion upon the motivation of the teachers concerned. However, such a policy would depend heavily upon support from the federal and national governments and from school teachers themselves.

As is subsequently argued in the context of international schools and colleges, the teaching of European studies in isolation tacitly implies that the appeal of Europe is to the intellect. This is not true. The appeal should be directed towards the whole person, by offering each child a personal experience of Europe, through the senses - as a result of visits and exchanges; through the emotions - by appealing for commitment to Europe through an active involvement in voluntary activities or serving involving co-operation with other Europeans. The United World Colleges have tried to achieve this wider appeal, and a similar objective lies at the back of the International Baccalaureate. It should be the aim of formal education in Europe to give all young Europeans, but including older Europeans if possible, knowledge, experience and involvement in the European cause, since nothing but such commitment can help make Europeans identify with Europe and one another, as they now identify with their own countries and compatriots.

The kinds of visits and exchanges which are practical for the majority of children or adults through formal education are very limited in duration and scope, and therefore in effectiveness. Provided, however, the objectives for such visits and exchanges have been carefully and realistically defined, the visit has been carefully supervised and guided to ensure the maximum effect, and the preparation and "follow up" have been well conducted, then they can prove useful in

consolidating language skills, providing cultural and social insights, and supplying young Europeans with personal contacts in other parts of Europe.

However, the principle of visits and exchanges could very well be extended to involve "European fieldwork" in a wide variety of other school subjects and vocational courses which are rarely regarded as relevant areas for this approach. In addition visits and exchanges could be conducted outside the bounds of formal education, so as to cater for people involved in professional, cultural and social organisations, ranging from trades unions and business associations to social clubs and societies, all of whom would benefit from greater opportunities to meet and confer with their counterparts in other countries in such ways. The great international organisations could do far more towards "priming the pump" for both formal education and those organisations which govern the various activities of adult life, by exploring ways to negotiate travel concessions, or remove obstacles from the path of travellers and visitors, and by developing imaginative schemes to complement those already in existence. Existing schemes which might be emulated include the travel services of the Automobile Association in the U.K., by which motorists can acquire temporary membership of other motoring associations all over Europe for the duration of their visits, and be protected from the various hazards which confront the motorist, and the Cultural Identity Card of the Council of Europe, which provides visitors in certain categories with opportunities to visit cultural establishments all over Europe at concessionary rates. The services of organisations like C.B., P.A.D., etc., could very easily be extended to a wider public outside the field of formal education, subject to the participants undertaking to engage in some approved kinds of activity as a condition of receiving support.

On the subject of textbook revision, there are several weaknesses inherent in this approach - not least the assumption upon which it is based - that textbooks are a major formative influence in shaping the outlook of the average school child. The teacher has it within his or her power to transmit enthusiasms and prejudices because personal relationships are more meaningful to pupils than the books they read. Furthermore school is only one sphere in which a child establishes personal relationships - and not the most important one. The family and the peer group is also capable of influencing the child profoundly.

What is more, textbook revision is, in essence, a negative approach - concerned with eliminating suspect passages in textbooks - rather than improving the texts. More good is likely to come from encouraging authors to write sound, dynamic textbooks presenting European people, places and events accurately and the cause of European integration convincingly. In this context, it is only fair to observe that the Georg Eckert Institute, in collaboration with the Council of Europe, the E.E.C. and U.N.E.S.C.O. has done a great deal to promote and encourage the writing of an entire new generation of textbooks of this kind.

What, however, represents a fundamental weakness in the textbook revision movement is its lack of influence with authors, publishers and educationalists, who might otherwise be persuaded to write, publish and buy the kind of books which come closest to meeting their criteria. While it would be quite inappropriate for any organisation to dictate the kind of textbooks purchased for schools, it would be most desirable for the international organisations in Europe to aspire to a situation in which, so great was the regard in which they were held - that authors, publishers and educationalists would strive to win their approbation, because a Council of Europe or E.E.C. accolade was regarded as a decisive factor in determining whether or not a book would sell or not.

The development of a European textbook market, rather than a number

of small national ones, would come far closer to reality if only publishers could develop an economic way of publishing multilingual textbooks which could be sold in all the major European countries. With such an extended market, a textbook could sell so many more copies without expensive expedients such as separate language editions. This would provide a greater incentive to publishers for capturing the vast market, and to authors for writing with it in mind.

As for the disemination of educational material, there is little doubt that excellent work is being done at international, national, regional and local levels, but unfortunately, with so many organisations involved, there is a real danger of costly duplication of effort and resources, and wasteful competition. It would not be desirable to reduce the number of organisations, since the remaining organisations would inevitably become more remote from their information sources and from the educational clients they exist to serve. Duplication and wasteful competition could be reduced if regional centres were better co-ordinated at the national level, and national centres at the international level. They might be encouraged to use one another's publications, pool their expertise, and co-operate upon international projects. This is certainly not always the case at present, and indeed there is some evidence of petty rivalries, and animosity between centres which find themselves in competition for the limited funds available, or find themselves obliged to resist the efforts of competitors seeking to encroach upon their projects or claim the credit for their achievements.

Disunity and rivalry of this kind does nothing but damage to the cause of European education. That is why an institution comparable to the Centre for European Education (C.E.E.), now only surviving in an emasculated form, is necessary in order to regulate the work of the various centres.

Of the five approaches to the role of formal education so far

considered, two only, may be regarded as of primary importance. These are the teaching of language skills and of European studies. The others, textbook revision, visits and exchanges, and the dissemination of information, play only a supplementary role to them.

Even the teaching of language skills, however, cannot be looked upon as a means of promoting European unity which will operate effectively if practised alone. There is an apocryphal saying, the original source of which is elusive, that the learning of languages, far from helping to bring about international harmony, may even aggravate hostilities.(1) It is very significant that T. Rendall Davies, in quoting this saying, was in fact arguing that, in just the same way, neither educational travel nor European studies offered a panacea for international unrest. He observed that, far from educational travel being a powerful influence for world peace, there was "unfortunately little or no evidence to support such an assertion", and that, as for any suggestion that European studies provide a means of providing peace through greater understanding, "half the wars in history have been civil wars between people who ... understood one another only too well".(2)

It is for this reason that all the approaches ought to complement one another. Europeans need to learn to communicate with one another effectively, but in order to benefit constructively from the acquisition of skills in one another's languages, they have not only to understand one another's backgrounds and cultures, but to think in similar ways, and identify with one another's feelings, problems and needs. To achieve this they need not only to learn the cultures of one another's countries, know at first hand what it is to live and share in one another's lives, but to have studied at least some things in common.

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1. T. Rendall Davies, "The Role of Educational Travel in International understanding with special reference to Europe", in The Year Book of Education, 1964,"Education and International Life", Evans Bros, Section III, Chapter 1, p.289.

2. T. Rendall Davies, Idem

That is why each of the approaches so far proposed need to be implemented alongside one another, if the objective is to be reached. What, ideally, is required is a coherent and comprehensive educational programme for the promotion of European unity to help eliminate ignorance, prejudice and distrust, nurture mutual understanding and empathy, and help Europeans practise those skills of mobility and language communication which can help bring them closer together.

Finally, there is the matter of international schools and colleges. It will be recalled that the E.E.C. some years ago, rejected the idea of extending international education as it now exists to the state education systems of the member states.(1) If this decision was based upon a recognition that the existing international schools could make only a limited impact on the problem of arousing European consciousness amongst the future citizens of Europe because they are too select and academic in their approach, then it was probably a wise one. On the other hand, even though the existing international schools do not reach the less-fortunate majority, and take a narrow academic approach which is not only inappropriate to the majority of young Europeans, but fails to reach the "whole person" even in those very young people with whom it is most successful, they do provide pointers towards ways in which formal education could reach the majority of young Europeans.

If academic mobility was extended to the schools of Europe, then teachers, pupils and ideas would be constantly exchanged across the national frontiers. In particular, the provisions for young people in the higher cycle of secondary education could be adapted to include boarding facilities, so that many more young people could benefit from an experience similar to that provided through the United World Colleges,

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1. Education Committee, Report on progress made with the implementation of the Action Programme for Education, dated 9th February 1976, 8137/80 dated 27th June 1980, pp.13-14, paragraphs F1 and F2.

at an age when they are mature enough to derive maximum benefit from it. The opportunity to attend school in a country other than their own should not depend upon their academic attainments or the kind of careers for which they are destined. The curriculum would include opportunities for learning to co-operate with other young Europeans on worthwhile social or cultural projects. In addition, or alternatively, an institution could be established standing intermediate between Community Service Volunteers, who organises public service projects for young people in the United Kingdom, and Volunteer Service Overseas, which, as its name implies, provides similar opportunities all over the world. Young Europeans could be required to undertake some form of "International Service" - one or two years in a socially deserving and worthwhile cause - in active collaboration with other young Europeans from various countries and backgrounds. This could take the place of national service in one of the armed forces, which is still a feature of several European societies - and would provide comparable help in attaining maturity and learning self-discipline,combined with a more worthwhile and humanitarian experience than the armed forces can possibly offer. More important, young Europeans would be learning about the continent and its people realistically and at first hand. This International Service could be undertaken between Compulsory Education and Tertiary Education or work; alternatively it could be following tertiary education and before embarking on a career. Experience suggests that the more mature young people are - the more benefit both they, and the projects they are involved in, derive.

Unfortunately, what seems to have become apparent from the research upon which this study is based is that European formal education will not be able to make any great contribution to European unity unless or until it is itself reformed. In this process the European Parliament, if empowered to do so, would play an important co-ordinating role, for

it is not practical for national governments, individually, to embark upon the necessary legal steps towards the harmonisation of European education, to extend the means of teacher and student mobility, or to provide for effective and comprehensive life-long education. Granted such constitutional reform and subsequent educational reform, formal education might pursue its role in the promotion of European unity in a more purposeful manner. Without these reforms, the contribution made by formal education through the various approaches identified is likely to be slow and piecemeal, though no less worthwhile in the long run.

Since national politicians show no signs of being willing to lay down their own authority, and since public opinion appears to lack the will to call upon them to strengthen the powers of the European Parliament in order to establish effective federal government, there does not seem to be much room for optimism. It is necessary, therefore, to suggest measures which formal education might undertake, in addition to those functions outlined in the main text, to compensate for its disunity and weakness, as well as the lack of support it receives from the establishment.

The answer could reside in the efforts of the teachers themselves, collectively theough their international associations, and individually, to take the matter into their own hands. To this end, it would be most desirable if the Council for European Education (C.E.E.) could recover its status as co-ordinating body over the various national, regional and local information and documentation centres run, all over Europe, by teachers themselves, and if the individual centres would accept its lead and abandon their rivalries in the interest of greater effectiveness. Teachers themselves could do much more to influence their colleagues, those practising in the profession and those in training, and encourage them to intensify their efforts through the functions already identified.

In this context the A.E.D.E., or in the U.K. the E.A.T. - European Association of Teachers, could greatly extend its educational and policy-making functions if only it enjoyed wider support amongst the teachers of Europe.

As has recently been demonstrated in other contexts - notably ecological dangers, when numbers of the public are sufficiently concerned to demonstrate their determination by organising direct protests, they are perfectly capable of swaying opinion and bringing pressure to bear on politicians to change their policies. In like manner teachers in Europe could do far more to influence educational policy, and change educational practice. In future, if governments in Europe cannot be depended upon to reflect the will and best interests of Europeans, it may be the responsibility of the teachers themselves, at all levels of formal education, as well as the concerned public at large, to co-ordinate their own efforts in the performance of the role of formal education in the promotion of European unity, and to bring pressure upon the politicians to undertake those reforms of education which would render it more conducive to the effective performance of that role.

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